

VOICES FROM OUR BEACHES: AN INVESTIGATION
INTO COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN NEW ZEALAND
COASTAL MANAGEMENT

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Abstract

This thesis argues the case of community involvement in coastal management in New Zealand. It takes as its starting point objective six of the New Zealand Coastal Policy Statement (2010). Which it is suggested, frames the issue on community involvement in specific but rather limited ways. The thesis examines the potential for community-based management in two contrasting places, namely Kaikoura and Waiheke Island.

Not only are these within different Regional Council jurisdictions, but they also have different community profiles. Kaikoura is a small rural town with a strong Maori presence in coastal management. Waiheke Island is a more mono-cultural, but rapidly growing island well within wider metropolitan Auckland.

Using three research questions the thesis explores existing methods of community-based management in these two places and considers the extent to which these are effective and might also give insight into how objective six could be more appropriately constructed in order to mobilise voices from our beaches.

1.0 Introduction

1.1 Setting up the thesis context

On the 3rd of December 2010, the New Zealand Coastal Policy Statement (NZCPS) (2010) took effect, superseding the first NZCPS (1994). Its role is to achieve the purpose of the Resource Management Act (RMA) (1991) in the coastal environment. This purpose is to promote the sustainable management of natural and physical resources. This is a significant document, as it was the first mandatory national policy statement required under the RMA (1991). The existence of a national policy statement for the coastal environment highlights the importance of the coastal environment in New Zealand. The NZCPS (2010) has seven objectives targeted at fulfilling its purpose (Table 1). Objective six has the most specific regard to coastal communities because it acts to provide for their social, economic, and cultural wellbeing and their health and safety, and is central to this thesis. The wording of objective six is: “To enable people and communities to provide for their social, economic, and cultural wellbeing and their health and safety, through subdivision, use, and development.” (Minister of Conservation, 2010a: 10)

Table 1 Opening phrases of the seven objectives in the New Zealand Policy Statement 2010

Objective 1	<i>To safeguard the integrity, form, functioning and resilience of the coastal environment and sustain its ecosystems, including marine and intertidal areas, estuaries, dunes and land.</i>
Objective 2	<i>To preserve the natural character of the coastal environment and protect natural features and landscape values.</i>
Objective 3	<i>To take account of the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi, recognise the role of tangata whenua as kaitiaki and provide for tangata whenua involvement in management of the coastal environment.</i>
Objective 4	<i>To maintain and enhance the public open space qualities and recreation opportunities of the coastal environment.</i>
Objective 5	<i>To ensure that coastal hazard risks taking account of climate change, are managed.</i>
Objective 6	<i>To enable people and communities to provide for their social, economic, and cultural wellbeing and their health and safety, through subdivision, use, and development.</i>
Objective 7	<i>To ensure that management of the coastal environment recognises and provides for New Zealand’s international obligations regarding the coastal environment, including the coastal marine area.</i>

In New Zealand, coastal management is administered by a ‘top-down’ approach to governance, comprising of “a central government; a tier of regional councils with primary responsibility for administration of common property resources; and territorial local authorities that are responsible for land use” (Makgill and Rennie, 2012: 147). Problems can occur in this process as the authorities involved have different responsibilities, represent different communities and have different management structures (Peart, 2007). The subsequent interpretations may deviate from the initial intentions of the parent document(s). This top-down method could be ineffective when the needs of ‘people’ and ‘communities’ are central to the objectives of the initiatives. The ‘people’ and ‘community’ should play a central role here – which would call for some adoption of ‘bottom-up’ practices and more specifically; community involvement in plan and policy making. Community involvement can provide the link between the governing institutions and the environment in order to build social-ecological resilience (Gunderson and Holling, 2002). Furthermore, community involvement allows management attention to shift from, controlling change to, building the capacity for communities to cope, adapt and change themselves (Wilson, 2012).

New Zealand is an island nation. Its people both Maori and Pakeha are, and always have been, inextricably linked with the coast. The first footsteps, Maori and European, were set in the sands of our shores. From then on the coast has always been a means of travel, trade, a home, a place to find food, and a place for recreation. This coastally based economy, culture, and belonging, in many ways defines who we are. The affinity we have with our coastline has resulted in the formation of beach cultures. These cultures play a pivotal role in developing our national identity.

In terms of my own positionality, the coast for me is an amazing place. Throughout my childhood the coast served as the destination for most holidays. Some of my fondest memories included: swimming in the surf until I had shrivelled skin and was blue with cold, head down on a big towel baking in the hot sun until I was a caramel brown colour, and crunching through the salty crust layer of sand and scuffing my feet across ultra-fine grains underneath to make that distinctive squeaking sound. My family, friends and I fished from the shore, camped behind the dunes, and had hours upon hours of made-up adventures. We ate ice-creams and fish n’ chips all day long, and would sit around a driftwood fire and watch the sun melt into the sea. The sights, sounds, smell and feel of the beach create a profound sense of place. My sense of place is one perspective, a primary unit. Collectively the experiences and senses of place New Zealanders have with their coastal environment form the beach cultures previously alluded to.

Unfortunately, our love for our coast can actually be detrimental to our coastal environments. The idea of common property we relate to the coastal environment and the diversity of activities mean that the coastal environment is a heavily contested stage. Our increasing desire to live on the coast and the privatisation and commercialisation of coastal land, all put pressure on the natural coastal systems

around New Zealand (Collins and Kearns, 2010; Peart, 2009). Without management intervention we could expect considerable degradation within our coastal environments. If we lose what we consider to be cherished values of the coast, our experience of the coast will change, detaching us from our coastal heritage. Management of our activities within the coastal environment is needed to ensure our coastal cultures can continue into the future for generations to come.

To manage coastal environments sustainably, it is important to safeguard the integrity, form, functioning and resilience of the coastal environments. It is equally important to enable social, economic and cultural wellbeing within these coastal environments. Our own activities should be more easily managed than the dynamic natural processes that occur within coastal environments. Therefore management efforts should focus on avoiding/mitigating/remediating negative human impacts within a coastal environment whilst, sustaining a level of social, economic and wellbeing in a coastal environment. This should in turn promote the integrity, form, functioning and resilience of the coastal environment.

The diverse nature of our coastline is matched by our diverse range of activities, values and issues that are present in our coastal communities. If management is to focus on sustaining levels of social, economic and cultural wellbeing in a coastal environment that would alleviate the pressures on the coastal environment, management must cater to a wide variety of values and issues. Therefore, it should be important to ‘give a voice’ to people and community at a local level. This thesis will argue that, localised bespoke style management will enable social, economic and cultural wellbeing to be better obtained within local coastal environments.

1.2 Justifying the role of the thesis

Typical coastal management in New Zealand has focussed on natural processes with a strong emphasis placed on scientific expertise, particularly coastal geomorphology and biology (Peart, 2009). However, the increasingly popular style of localism within broader governance, allows for the capacity to incorporate forms of knowledge outside the scientific sector (Featherstone *et al.*, 2012). This international trend is also occurring within approaches to coastal management, with an increasing desire to recognise the involvement of local communities as a contributor and as a tool in effective coastal management (Berkes, 1989; Charles *et al.*, 2010; Ellsworth *et al.*, 1997; Hegarty, 1997; Hildebrand, 1997; Wilson and Wiber, 2009).

I attended the *Coastlines* conference hosted by the Environmental Defence Society (EDS) on the 1st and 2nd of June, 2011 at the SKYCITY Convention Centre in Auckland. It was designed to explore current coastal, and marine management thinking and processes in New Zealand. By identifying knowledge and legislative gaps and providing suggestions for future management. International and local speakers provided insight into these areas. Community involvement in ‘collaborative’ style

coastal management was a recurrent theme throughout the conference. The lessons I took from the conference included that New Zealand currently lacks the adequate means to involve local communities in coastal management. Furthermore, communities are typically consulted after plans have been drawn up, rather than being involved in a collaborative decision making process.

Objective six of the NZCPS (2010), directly infers some sort of community involvement in the implementation of achieving such a goal. How else can social, economic, and cultural wellbeing at a ‘community’ level be determined? However, this is a national objective, one that trickles down a hierarchical ladder of legislation before it reaches the people and their communities. Further acknowledgement, allowing for community involvement in coastal management would ensure the word ‘enable’ has a firm foundation in the context of objective six.

This thesis aims to identify current levels of community involvement and the willingness for future community involvement, in coastal management, and to explore the possibilities of further integration of communities into statutory law. In terms of current international best practice, this would be a step in the right direction for New Zealand coastal management as it is currently under-representing the involvement of communities.

1.3 Research questions

This thesis hypothesises that an increased level of community involvement in coastal management within New Zealand would lead to:

- A more integrated style of management that better reflects the values of all those that have an interest in the coast;
- Better results and implementation through:
 - wider acceptance within the community of rules and regulations;
 - volunteered labour and monitoring services;
- Less conflict or opposition to proposals;
- A more informed public sector; and
- Local knowledge becoming a reputable and significant source of information.

In order to do this, the argument focuses on the meaning and implementation of objective six of the NZCPS (2010). It aims to: uncover how those who constructed the NZCPS (2010) see objective six working, and to explore on the ground how ‘people and communities’ might ‘provide for their social, economic, and cultural wellbeing and their health and safety, through subdivision, use and development’. Ultimately it seeks an answer/s to the question of how community voices can be incorporated in to processes of coastal management.

This thesis will investigate three interrelated questions:

- 1) How is objective six of the NZCPS (2010) to be implemented?
- 2) How is place-specific community coastal knowledge expressed or known?
- 3) How can place-specific coastal knowledge be embedded into the implementation of objective six?

Two local communities were chosen to act as case studies to investigate the research questions. They are: Waiheke Island and Kaikoura and were chosen on their inherent differences to ensure that a comparative analysis would highlight the need to tailor management efforts according to local community profiles. These differences include: rural vs. urban, North Island vs. South Island, different council structures, different cultural contexts. Furthermore, they embody issues central to objective six as both are under pressure from ‘development’ and ‘subdivision’, and exhibit varying degrees of contest within the communities themselves. Initial contact was made through pre-existing networks of active community groups that reside in the study areas. The aim of this contact was to obtain information on values, interests, and possible issues that people have with their coastal setting.

1.4 Case Study Locations

1.4.1 Kaikoura

“The Kaikoura district spans from the Haumuri Bluffs in the south to the Kekerengu Valley in the north, covering 2,048 square kilometres of diverse landscape” (Figure 1) (Kaikoura District Council, 2011: 3). There are 3,621 residents in the Kaikoura district of which 2,172 residents reside in the township (Statistics New Zealand, 2006). The Kaikoura Township itself sits on the coast to the north of the Kaikoura Peninsula; it is an area where the Southern Alps meet the sea. This dramatic terrain gives Kaikoura a peculiarly independent character (Sherrard, 1966). It has a unique marine environment; the deep inshore waters of the Kaikoura Canyon sustain enormous quantities and varieties of fish, whales, dolphins and seals due to the upwelling of nutrients (De Leo *et al.*, 2010).



Figure 1. Situated map showing the natural boundaries of the Kaikoura region and the location of the Kaikoura Township

Kaikoura's resource rich coastline has been the primary reason for human occupation of the area. The abundance of kai-moana (seafood) and the inland bush resources provided comfortable living for early Maori, resulting in Kaikoura being the most densely populated area for Maori in the South Island (Sherrard, 1966). Kaikoura has been a significant marine area for Ngai Tahu and continue to express a vested interest in supporting the appropriate management of the coastal environment. Early European settlement to the Kaikoura area was also prompted by the rich marine resources, with whaling and sealing providing the basis for initial interest. Today, the Kaikoura region is a world class tourism destination (Kaikoura District Council, 2011) based on the attraction of the marine wildlife and dramatic landscape. Fishing, both commercial and recreational are also very important to the community. Such uses, demand appropriate management to ensure all uses are sustainable to safeguard the common resource.

Kaikoura has a community group named Te Korowai o Te Tai o Marokura (the Kaikoura Coastal Marine Guardians). They are "a group of people standing for local leadership in caring for the Tangaroa and in decisions on the use and protection of [their] marine environment" (Te Korowai o Te Tai o Marokura, 2011: 10). They are a collective group of local Runanga members, local groups with an interest in the marine area such as tourism operators and fishermen, and local and regional authorities. They are working on an integrated strategy that aims to sustain the local marine environment for all interested parties for now and in the future. This group is an example of how local people and their community can be the driving force behind successful bespoke style management of their local coastal environments.

Te Korowai has provided this thesis with an example of a ‘means’ to answer the question: how can local community knowledge be embedded into coastal management? Place-specific coastal management in the Kaikoura region demands a local resident input as mentioned by Te Korowai member Raewyn Solomon who said; “We had to take action, and we were dammed if anybody else was going to do it, we certainly didn’t want decisions made, about our place, by people that don’t live here, so there is nobody else to do it, because at the end of the day, we live with it and breath it, and nobody else will ever care about this place, quite like we do” (Te Korowai o Te Tai o Marokura, 2008: viii).

1.4.2 Waiheke Island

Waiheke Island is located in the Hauraki Gulf 17 kilometres east of the Auckland CBD (Figure 2) (Bercusson and Walsby, 2008). It is the second largest island in the Gulf at 9,324 hectares (Peart, 2007), and the most populated, with approximately 8,500 residents (Auckland Council, 2011). It has its own Local Board which represents Waiheke Island under the ‘Super City’ council of Auckland and is also a part of the Hauraki Gulf Marine Park under the Hauraki Gulf Marine Park Act (HGMPA) (2000). The purpose of the Act was to – integrate the management of the natural, historic, and physical resources of the Hauraki Gulf, its islands, and catchments; which acts upon the realisation that “the Hauraki Gulf has a quality and diversity of biology and landscape that makes it outstanding within New Zealand” (Minister of Conservation, 2000: 3).

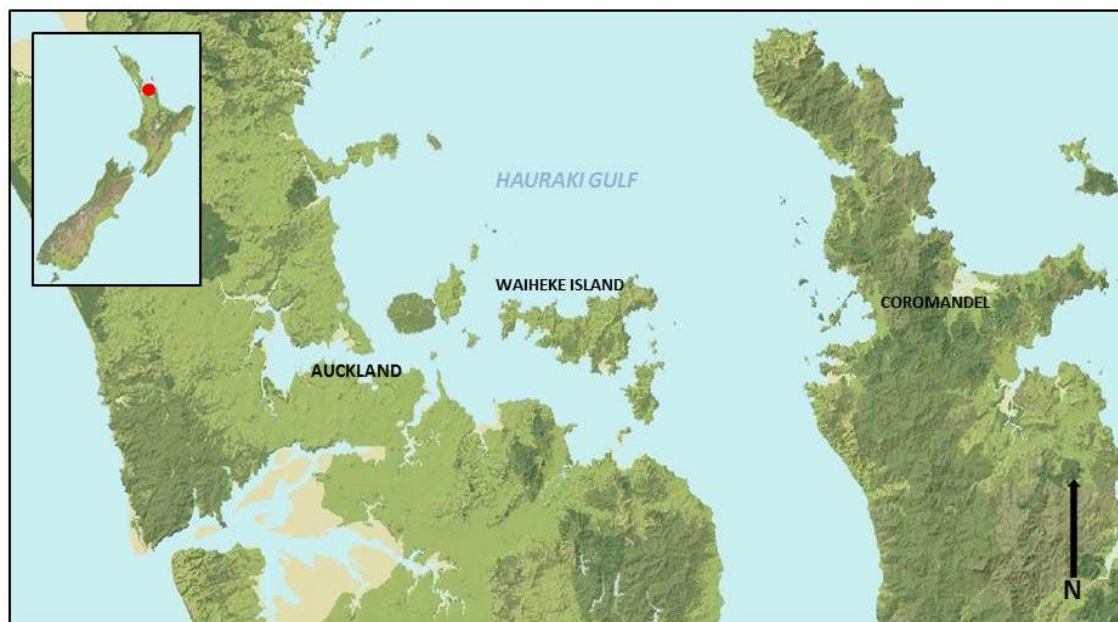


Figure 2 Situated map showing Waiheke Island and its proximity to Auckland

Waiheke Island has always been a coastal playground for Auckland residents, with its calm sandy beaches, great fishing, swimming, and boating. As ferry trips became faster and more regular, and with the inclusion of Waiheke Island into the Auckland city district, the island experienced an influx

of people. Waiheke Island had become a ‘commuter’s paradise’ (Bercusson and Walsby, 2008). Waiheke Island has come under increasing pressure from subdivision and development. Wealthy Aucklanders are buying property for holiday homes and in the process pricing Waiheke Island out of reach for existing permanent residents (Gibson, 2011b). This is particularly a problem in light of this thesis when this type of development is occurring in the coastal environment such as: a \$22 million home on Waiheke Island that has 25.8 hectares of coastal land, and private marinas like the one proposed for Matiatia Bay on Waiheke Island which would see considerable reclamation and dredging works in the bay itself (Gibson, 2011a; Orsman, 2011). These examples of privatisation and the inherent lack of public access to coastal environments are detrimental to the local community’s wellbeing. In this respect, the case study of Waiheke Island challenges the statement in objective six of the NZCPS (2010), as it illustrates how subdivision and development can be detrimental to the people of the local community. Investigations on Waiheke Island should illustrate whether or not subdivision and development is what the community is wanting for their coastal environment and if they are not, how can the community have a voice?

1.5 Thesis structure

This thesis is comprised of seven chapters (including the references chapter). Chapter two examines much of the theory and background necessary to the understanding of this thesis. It firstly describes the recent history of the environmental reforms that have shaped the current management of the coastal environment within New Zealand. Secondly, it highlights the need, importance and benefits of further community involvement in coastal management and illustrates the issues and inequalities communities currently face. Thirdly, the notion of New Zealand beach cultures is explored, emphasising that there is a real need to acknowledge the cultural significance the coastal environments, suggesting that community-based coastal management could encapsulate ‘community-scale’ beach cultures, theorising that this scale is the primary point where the culmination of individual ‘senses of place’ can occur. Lastly, chapter two analyses the evolution and implementation of the NZCPS (2010) with particular emphasis on objective six.

Chapter three outlines the methodological approach employed justifying the comparative case study method that investigates the thesis objectives in two case study areas, namely Kaikoura and Waiheke Island. It describes the ethical parameters that were adhered to when engaging with the communities. Lastly, it describes the methods employed within the case study areas to obtain feedback from community members and their respected councillors.

Chapters four and five outline the results gathered from the case study areas of Waiheke Island and Kaikoura respectively. They both follow a similar structure which firstly describes the contextual background of the respective coastal environments and the communities who reside within. Secondly,

descriptive accounts of key coastal management practice within the case study areas are outlined. Lastly the results from the feedback from councillors and the communities are summarised.

Chapter six represents the discussion and consists of three parts. Firstly, the results were summarised and analysed which provided the concluding statements about the case study areas. Secondly, the combination of the results and lessons learnt from the literature provide the necessary evidence to promote further community involvement in coastal management in New Zealand. The output of this section is a proposition for the inclusion of a further objective into the NZCPS (2010) that provides specific mention for community involvement. Lastly, the discussion revisits and provides insight into the initial research questions outlined in the introduction chapter. Furthermore, a reflection on the methodology re-emphasises the need for community involvement and the need to tailor the approach to the community in question, by acknowledging the differences both between coastal communities but also within them.

2.0 Approaches to coastal management

Chapter two comprises much of the theory and background necessary to the understanding of this thesis. It consists of five sub-sections. Firstly, the recent histories of the environmental reforms that have shaped the current approach to coastal management within New Zealand have been outlined. Secondly, it highlights the need, importance and benefits of further community involvement in coastal management and illustrates the issues and inequalities communities currently face. Thirdly, the notion of New Zealand beach cultures is explored, emphasising that there is a real need to acknowledge the cultural significance of the coastal environments. This suggests that community-based coastal management could encapsulate ‘community-scale’ beach cultures, theorising that this scale is the primary point where the culmination of individual ‘senses of place’ can occur. Lastly, chapter two analyses the evolution and implementation of the NZCPS (2010) with particular emphasis on objective six with respect to the acknowledgement of community involvement.

2.1 Conventional coastal management approaches in New Zealand

The most significant tool in environmental management in New Zealand today, is the Resource Management Act (1991). With underlying concepts of integration and sustainability, it governs the management of land, air, soil, water and ecosystems throughout New Zealand’s land and territorial sea (Peart, 2008). In the coastal environment, the New Zealand Coastal Policy Statement (NZCPS) states policies in order to achieve the purpose of the RMA (1991). This section illustrates how environmental management (including coastal management) was practiced before the RMA (1991) in New Zealand, including the key events and rationale that prompted radical change and the birth of the RMA (1991). It also describes the current implementation of the RMA (1991) and NZCPS (2010); including the functions of different levels of government and why current philosophy does not translate into good practice in the coastal environment.

2.1.1 The evolution of environmental management in New Zealand

Between 1870 and 1980, the largest developer in the country was the central government, reflecting utilitarian and exploitative attitudes towards the environment (Memon, 1993). Almost all facets of life in New Zealand during this time were affected by a high degree of state intervention through economic welfare policies, social welfare services and infrastructure projects (Memon and Gleeson, 1995). Specific issues and problems were usually addressed in a singular *ad hoc* fashion (Rennie, 2000). This reflected a piecemeal legislative approach, accompanied by a fragmented style of management. Harnessing natural resources for economic growth placed increasing pressure on the environment. This resulted in environmental degradation nationwide, prompting increasing public concern by the 1970’s (Memon, 1993).

Radical changes in thinking and structure, mainly in the 1980's, led to the development of the RMA (1991) legislation. This came about through two key socio-political changes: the 'New Right' ideology in government, and the increasing status of the environmental movement (Memon and Gleeson, 1995). The traditional high level of government intervention was reformed, initiated by the fourth Labour Government in the late 1980's (Peart, 2009). Relinquishing its stance as chief developer, central government encouraged a shift to development enabled by market-based resource allocation (Memon, 1993; Memon and Gleeson, 1995; Peart, 2009). At the same time various initiatives were taken, to attempt to integrate resource management with the ideals of conservation (Memon, 1993). The shift to market-based resource management and the integration of conservation ideals, are conflicting directions of governance and subsequently do not work effectively together.

The conservation approach was adopted by the Labour party because of the possible electoral benefits in response to the growing awareness of environmental issues (Memon, 1993). "This concern was encapsulated in the concept of sustainable development and a recognition of the need to make sure that development did not impinge on ecological bottom lines" (Peart, 2009: 211).

As part of the environment, New Zealand's coastlines were no exception to the fragmented management prior to the radical reforms of the 1980's. In fact more than fifty Acts governed the coastal environment to address issues prior to the RMA (1991) (Rennie, 1993). The dynamic nature of coastal environments gave rise to further issues that are less apparent in land based outlooks. These include: a lack of knowledge of the interconnected processes present in the coastal environment, and the ambiguity of resource and property rights (Rennie, 2000). Two historical periods that act as examples that reflect these issues are: the subdivision and development of coastal farmland post World War Two and the subsequent acquisition of land for public reserves in the 1960's and 1970's. These periods provide insight into, how the coastal environment was perceived.

Subdivision and development of rural coastlines for holiday homes was in high demand post World War Two. The management of such activity was rudimentary, and at the time was authorised by the Minister of Lands whose objective was to encourage land settlement (Peart, 2009). To make extra money a farmer would sell off coastal frontage for subdivisions. Typically they would employ a surveyor to draw up the proposed subdivision which was readily granted by the Department of Lands and Survey (Peart, 2009). The proliferation of holiday homes or 'baches,' lead to large scale disruption of highly natural coastline landscapes due to their poor design and placement (Peart, 2009). Which, according to Thompson (1985) in Collins and Kearns (2006: 229) prompted "criticisms that baches compromised public access, diminished aesthetic values and disrupted wildlife".

In the 1960's growing concern over coastline degradation and public access prompted some early management plans. Within the Auckland region in particular, new strategies based around preserving public access and natural landscapes focussed on council acquisition of coastal land (Murdoch, 2010;

Peart, 2009). The success of the public reserves were twofold: land was often purchased by the council to inhibit sales to private developers and therefore stopping proposed subdivisions, the second was that once the land was made into a public reserve it future-proofed public access and provided places for conservation (Murdoch, 2010).

The events within these periods have left their imprint on the coastal environments of today. Holiday homes on the coast are still an important symbol of some people's beach culture, the public reserves and parks are also key areas that provide access to natural environments for everyone to enjoy. However, the issues of subdivision and development relating to the appropriateness of design and function, and the concern over privatisation and subsequent loss of public access are still prominent issues in coastal environments all around New Zealand. Re-iterating the problems faced when market-based approaches are applied to coastal areas where conservation is often imperative and ideas of common property are assumed.

2.1.2 Environmental management under the Resource Management Act (1991).

The RMA (1991) promotes sustainability and integration and in theory at least, “claims to have resolved the apparent paradox between environmentalism and economic growth” (Memon and Gleeson, 1995: 110). However, it represents an uneasy legislative compromise between environmentalist demands and the agenda of neo-liberal interests (Le Heron and Pawson, 1996). As a result the RMA (1991) definition of ‘sustainable management’ (Table 2) strays from its origins in ‘sustainable development’ coined in the Brundtland Report which states “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs” (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987: 43). This definition is values based with the moral imperative of accepting intergenerational equity (Memon and Gleeson, 1995). The RMA (1991) definition falls short of giving precedence to environmental protection, it is ‘less prescriptive’ and ‘desocialises future generations’ focussing on the management of material resources rather than the needs and aspirations of the people (Le Heron and Pawson, 1996; Memon and Gleeson, 1995). Furthermore, 2(a) and 2(b) of the RMA (1991) definition of sustainability (Table 2) are hard to mobilise, essentially limiting the RMA’s environmental function to 2(c); avoiding, remedying, or mitigating any adverse effects of activities on the environment. Nevertheless, at the time of inauguration in 1991 the Act was considered to be world leading in the development of statutory environmental planning and management (Perkins and Thorns, 2001). It streamlined procedures, replacing fifty four acts and twenty regulations (Memon and Gleeson, 1995).

Table 2 Definition of sustainable management in the Resource Management Act (1991)

5 Purpose	
(1)	The purpose of this Act is to promote the sustainable management of natural and physical resources.

(2)	<p>In this Act, sustainable management means managing the use, development and protection of natural and physical resources in a way, or at a rate, which enables people and communities to provide for their social, economic, and cultural wellbeing and for their health and safety while-</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Sustaining the potential of natural and physical resources (excluding minerals) to meet the reasonably foreseeable needs of future generations; and b. Safeguarding the life-supporting capacity of air, water, soil, and ecosystems; and c. Avoiding, remedying, or mitigating any adverse effects of activities on the environment.
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The RMA (1991) defines a hierarchical planning structure delegating roles to levels of government (Table 3). “This hierarchy is based on the assumption that decisions should be made as close as possible to the appropriate level of community interest where the effects and benefits accrue” (Memon and Gleeson, 1995: 117). Each level of government provides documents such as policy statements and plans to illustrate their decisions with respect to their roles, the documents must not be inconsistent with the levels above it, promoting vertical integration (Peart, 2008; Rennie, 2000).

Table 3 Functions by levels of government (Adapted from: Memon, 1993)

Central Government	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overview role • Developing policies for managing resources • Performance and quality standards • Mineral allocation • Aspects of coastal management • Management of toxic wastes, explosives, other hazardous substances • National Policy Statements (e.g. Coastal Policy Statement – Department of Conservation)
Regional Councils	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overview/co-ordination role: regional resource policy statements; regional plans (optional) • Water and soil management • Management of geothermal resources • Natural hazards mitigation/planning • Regional aspects of hazardous substances

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pollution management and air pollution control • Aspects of coastal management
Territorial Councils	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • District plans • Control of land-use and subdivision • Noise control • Control for natural hazards avoidance and mitigation • Local control of hazardous substances use

Table 3 shows that coastal management is a role delegated to both the central government and regional councils. Le Heron and Pawson (1996: 249) state that, “New Zealanders consider that there is an environmental component to citizenship. At the national level this means that to live in a particular place carries the expectation of, even the right to, high public environmental standards.” Given this national need and the Crown’s presumed ownership of the coastal marine area, the coastal environment was given special status within the RMA (1991) and requires the only mandatory national policy statement (Rennie, 2000). The regional councils have authority over common property resources, and were deemed fit to exercise the day-to-day management of the coastal marine area as long as it was not inconsistent with the national policy statement (Peart, 2009; Rennie, 2000).

Within the RMA (1991) legislation there are two major differences that set coastal marine environments apart from terrestrial environments. Firstly, any terrestrial activities are permitted (providing it meets consent conditions) unless there is a specific rule prohibiting that activity. In contrast, all marine activities are prohibited (except fishing) unless there is a specific rule permitting an activity. This is due to the Crown’s presumed ownership of the coastal marine environment and the adoption of a precautionary approach (Rennie, 2000). Second, coastal permits differ from resource consents, as coastal occupation is deemed an ‘effect’ not an ownership right. These permits are limited to a maximum term of thirty five years, reflecting in a way the ‘commons property’ concept inherent to the coastal environment (Rennie, 2000).

2.1.3 The shortfalls of current coastal management under the RMA (1991) and NZCPS (2010)

The coastal marine environment has special mention within the RMA (1991). However, the ‘common property’ perception present in the coastal environment and the fact that, the interconnected biophysical ecosystems of the coastal environment freely traverse arbitrary legal boundaries is contrary to much of the theory of the RMA (1991), which is based within market-led environmental planning, reinforcing traditional values of private property ownership (Memon and Gleeson, 1995; Rennie, 2000).

The difference in legislation between the terrestrial and coastal environments allows for exception in the coastal environment in an attempt to resolve the conflict between the ‘common property’ perception the coastal environment possesses and the market-led planning structure through which the entire natural environment is regulated. But the NZCPS (1994) was not ‘prescriptive’ enough and merely offered advice rather than prompting action, allowing for wide differences in interpretation and therefore, the full effects of the market-based structure to exist in the coastal environment (Gregory, 2008). This implies that the allocation of coastal resources surpasses the need for coastal protection for both non-market use and future generations.

Reflecting on the theme of the ‘vagueness’ apparent in the legislation, the RMA (1991) fails to define the term ‘integrated management’ (Peart and Reaburn, 2011). A definition should be important given the impetus the RMA (1991) places on integration. There are certain instances where integration is prominent within the RMA (1991), such as: the vertical hierarchy of governance expresses a level of integration through the act of being ‘not inconsistent’ with each other (Peart, 2008; Rennie, 2000), and integration is also present in the holistic approach taken towards the environment, recognising that natural and physical processes are interrelated (Memon, 1993). A type of integration that is not present within the RMA (1991) or the NZCPS (2010) which is particularly important within the coastal environment is full engagement with people and communities. With the ‘common property’ perception apparent in the coastal environment, people and communities are major stakeholders, with major interests. But because their interests are associated with the ideas of ‘common property,’ they effectively have no value within a market-based structure. Furthermore, the day-to-day management of the coastal environment is carried out by the regional councils, who are two tiers further up the vertical hierarchy with respect to people and communities – in this sense the regional council is probably not the closest level of governance to where the effects are accruing. So can a regional council effectively integrate with all the communities within their jurisdiction?

The RMA (1991) focuses on managing the impact of human activities on the environment rather than regulating the activities themselves (Memon and Gleeson, 1995; Peart, 2008). Because the RMA (1991) is not very prescriptive, the conditions are subject to interpretation, so people can do just about anything provided they do not harm the environment (Memon and Gleeson, 1995). As previously mentioned, the definition of ‘sustainable management’ used in the RMA (1991) strays from its origins in ‘sustainable development,’ which was more values-based and focussed on intergenerational equity. With respect to the coastal environment in New Zealand society, the ‘common property’ concept is paramount. Therefore, the people and communities within this environment are also important and should have full integration within any management and planning process. Coastal management within New Zealand would be most effective if it was values-based and community led (granted there is merit in having National level objectives), because ultimately it is with the people within the coastal environment that the effects and benefits of any coastal activities accrue.

2.2 Coastal management with community involvement

This section investigates the recent consensus that advocates the need for higher levels of community involvement in coastal management with respect to current management approaches. The realisation is that, local communities are the immediate recipients of the effects (both positive and negative) of their coastal environment and similarly, any management attempts in that environment. This is why communities should be involved in decision-making. Furthermore, this section identifies a missing link in typical coastal management which can be provided for by employing community based approaches. The principles that community based management deliver to the efficacy of a coastal management approach are also described and local knowledge is identified as a social/cultural commodity that can provide leverage for communities increasing their status as a stakeholder. Lastly the concept of social/community resilience is deemed the primary reason empowering communities to be involved in the management of their local coastal environment.

2.2.1 Setting up the need for community involvement.

Humans interact with their coastal environments at the local level and it is the cumulative nature of this interaction that can cause larger scale problems (Hegarty, 1997). It is the coastal communities that experience the immediate benefits and challenges of their coastal environments (Kearney *et al.*, 2007). Furthermore, coastal communities face unique conditions (social, economic, cultural, and environmental) within their coastal environments (Kearney *et al.*, 2007). This provides a real need for a ‘tailored’ approach to community participation in coastal management (Marin *et al.*, 2009). Communities are increasingly becoming important ‘nodes of governance’ providing the link between governing institutions and the environment – building social and ecological resilience (Gunderson and Holling, 2002; Kearney *et al.*, 2007).

The rising impetus on providing for community involvement in coastal management has been driven by failings of ‘top-down’ approaches (Fraser *et al.*, 2006). Whilst these typical ‘top-down’ approaches can account for environmental and economic issues, equivalent consideration for social and cultural aspects are largely unaccounted for (Wilson and Wiber, 2009). Furthermore, decisions made by higher levels of governance provide only ‘symbolic’ gestures and ambitions and do not directly encounter the tangible environments in which they make rule, and are therefore externalised from the effects (Hegarty, 1997). In a ‘top-down’ approach, the public “rarely possess the power or the resources to influence decisions that affect them. Consultation processes wherein public interests put forward their sectoral views and positions, are seldom satisfying for decision-makers or the public” (Ellsworth *et al.*, 1997: 122). This level of community involvement is no longer seen as adequate (Hildebrand, 1997).

2.2.2 Community involvement in coastal management.

Communities can have varying levels of involvement in the management of their coastal environment. Ellsworth *et al.* (1997) identifies the following continuum (going from least involved to most involved) showing how community participation can vary in stature:

- 1) *The provision of public information:* Decisions have already been made and the public are merely being advised of the fact.
- 2) *Requesting comments:* Asking for feedback on decisions that have already been made.
- 3) *Public consultation:* Plans will seek input from the public, but typically designed to narrow down pre-conceived options.
- 4) *Public advisory committees:* More in-depth consultation process. Still lacks public input pre-plans.
- 5) *Multi-stakeholder (joint planning) processes (Collaborative approach):* all inclusive, recognising the rights of all interested parties and stakeholders involved in defining coastal environments, values, issues, and preferred outcomes.

Typically, environmental management in New Zealand under the RMA (1991) utilises the ‘public consultation’ (3) level of involvement. In the context of coastal environments, the preceding section identifies a real need for a high level of community participation in coastal management. The final rung on the continuum above (5): multi-stakeholder processes, should be the level of community involvement New Zealand coastal management aspires to. This would ensure the unique components of all communities are acknowledged, as “communities are valuable human systems in their own right” (Kearney *et al.*, 2007: 81). Currently there is no acknowledgement within coastal statutory law that promotes this level of involvement. Therefore, higher levels of community involvement are attempted through non-statutory processes which decrease the effectiveness of the community’s efforts.

The level to which a community wishes to be involved is entirely up to how willing an individual community is. Literature on community-based coastal management does infer that there is sufficient desire and/or need by communities to develop community based approaches (Hildebrand, 1997). But that is not to say any individual community may want to be involved so heavily in coastal management. If there are no pressing issues directly affecting a community, they may not see a need to be involved. Furthermore, coastal management can be seen as a duty for politicians, scientists, planners and ‘green activists,’ not needing further community input (Evans *et al.*, 2008). However, a community’s desire is not the deciding factor for successful community involvement. A previous research paper I worked on, investigated community involvement in the Rakaia Huts settlement, situated on the Rakaia River mouth. A major conclusion of this study was that: although the community was willing to be a part of managing their local coastal environment there were real issues

with getting their voices heard. One resident stated, “We’re all pulling on the same rope down here, but we’re battling to get anyone to listen.” Another said, “we are bashing our heads against a brick wall of indifference” (Steenenson, 2010). This thesis argues that there needs to be sufficient frameworks in place to ensure that if and when communities perceive the need to be involved, they can do so. This should dissolve the power inequalities communities can face, much like those faced in the Rakaia example.

One major constraint when advocating for a fully community based ‘bottom-up’ approach is the need to continue to support and develop national level legislation (Hildebrand, 1997). Creating the right balance between ‘top-down’ legislation and ‘bottom-up’ values has been logically deciphered in the works of Zagonari (2008) who identifies two levels of community values: Direct values (based on the need for livelihoods e.g. fishing, tourism) and in-direct values (based on benefits such as recreation, landscape aesthetics). Zagonari (2008: 797) states “developed countries should adopt a community based approach when people (typically, local shareholders) attach direct values to coastal quality, but should adopt a top-down approach when people (typically, the general population) attach in-direct values to coastal quality.” In other words, when there are issues at a local level that could affect local community livelihoods, a community based approach should be adopted and national objectives should provide for qualities of lifestyle and public rights.

As previously mentioned, typical management tends to forget about or at least delivers a lesser hand to social and cultural aspects of coastal management. Kearney *et al.* (2007: 81) identifies a “triple bottom line” of social, economic, and environmental needs, critical to maintaining social and ecological resilience. The inclusion of the cultural aspect is also important, especially in New Zealand where the coast is significant to the indigenous Maori population, and the coast’s significance in our identity as a nation. Kearney *et al.* (2007: 81) mentions that community participation goes beyond satisfying the ‘social’ aspect of this bottom line as the “overall cohesiveness, and long-term health of the relevant human systems...goes hand in hand with the sustainability and resilience of a coastal zone.” So by involving communities to ensure their wellbeing is catered for (providing sustainable social, economic, cultural conditions) the environment will also be kept in a sustainable state. The holistic provision for all aspects in the local coastal environment is the most important product of community-based coastal management, and is the area where it can triumph the most over ‘top-down’ approaches.

Another important provision of community-based coastal management is its ability to avoid the conflicts inherent of ‘top-down’ approaches. Marin *et al.* (2009: 268) states that “co-management practices, involving communities, representatives of user groups, government agencies and research institutions in a collaborative and participatory decision-making process [multi-stakeholder process], assure a more equitable and transparent process.” It also “minimizes adversarial situations; promotes

consensus and conflict avoidance; is an educational process leading to informed decision making; and it develops beneficial long-term relationships amongst all the stakeholders” (Ellsworth *et al.*, 1997: 125). This is achieved through allowing communities to be involved in the decision making process, as it is the communities that are immediately and most directly affected by the implementation of any coastal management plans governing their coastal environment.

Common property resources are numerous in the coastal environment, examples include: fish stocks and public access to the coast. These common property resources challenge typical management approaches that are market-led and manage resource use through privatised ownership. If governance systems are not properly in place, privatization of resources in the coastal environment can have “deleterious consequences” (Cabral and Alino, 2011: 66). Through the integration of social and cultural aspects that community-based approaches promote, coastal management can start to effectively manage issues around the values and use of common property resources (Christie and White, 1997).

What community involvement in coastal management can provide has been considered in the three paragraphs above, how it is provided will be elaborated on here. Communities can provide the ingredients needed to give coastal management a point of difference when being compared to ‘top-down’ approaches. Charles *et al.* (2010: 32) offer four steps necessary for appropriate community involvement, they are:

- “Identifying important values to be protected in the management process (allow for all stakeholders values).
- Empower debate at the local level (again allow for stakeholders to participate).
- Generate decisions and plans that are mindful of disruptive or cumulative impacts, address conflict.
- Result in resilient, ecologically viable, sustainable human and ecological communities in a way that is transformative and supportive of healthy local communities.”

The key point in that method is identifying common values that the community agree on, this is crucial in providing a community point of interest in the management that follows, leading to community guardianship (Hegarty, 1997). The community’s selection of values as indicators for the impending management is paramount as this cannot be devised as accurately by professional decision-makers that are externalised to the local circumstances, regular community input ensures these values change appropriately over time as circumstances change (Fraser *et al.*, 2006). Further to the creation of values, defining the local coastal environment and developing an inventory describing all resources derived from the social, economic, cultural and environmental elements is needed to develop ideas

and determine the limits of the ‘bottom lines’. It is also important for the community to decide on their preferred outcomes to ensure the management efforts enhance their values.

Kearney *et al.* (2007: 94) has created the following list of issues that act as parameters to ‘enable’ community involvement in coastal management. The issues are:

- “An enabling legal environment needs to clearly delimit the respective powers and responsibilities of state versus community agents.
- Local community institutions need to be legally recognised.
- Responsibilities and rights need to be firmly linked to particular sites and resources.
- Secure rights need to be granted, usually based on dependency on the resource or on historic patterns of access.
- The boundaries of the community need to be defined both for membership and in terms of geographical space.
- The state needs to sanction local law making and enforce them against interlopers. The state can also help tune these regulations to current ecological knowledge.”

These parameters are standardised steps that can provide a clear pathway for the implementation of community based coastal management initiatives around New Zealand regardless of the unique characteristics each local environment provides. The physical processes involved in obtaining community values and creating relationships for co-governance are numerous and not particularly important at this stage. The primary research of this thesis is focused on retrieving such information and in a sense will reflect one possible way of gaining this information. These processes therefore are explained in the methodology chapter of this thesis.

2.2.3 The application of local knowledge

At the heart of community involvement in coastal management is the acceptance, utilisation and full accreditation of local knowledge as a reliable source of information. This section highlights what local knowledge is in the context of coastal management and for the purposes of this thesis, why it is useful and in a sense the ‘missing link’ in effective coastal management, and outlines why previous misconceptions about the utilisation of local knowledge are unfounded in this context.

“Local knowledge is used as a generic term referring to knowledge generated through observation of the local environment and held by a specific group of people” (Berkes and Folke, 2002: 122). In its use in this thesis the term local knowledge encompasses indigenous/traditional knowledge as well as local knowledge’s that have less time depth. Traditional knowledge refers to a cumulative body of knowledge evolving through experience and passed through generations within a culture (Berkes and Folke, 2002). Local knowledge that has had less time depth can still be an important source of information, especially when the investigated problem is place-specific. The combination of both

types of knowledge within a spatially bound community provides a unique way of knowing and understanding about the immediate environment (Nygren, 1999).

Traditionally westernised science and management has had a dichotomous relationship with local knowledge, it has been seen as not important, derived from emotion, and lacked true scientific rigour (Nygren, 1999). Furthermore, it continues to be ignored by some, “because its discovery and analysis require in-depth sociologic, economic, and anthropologic observation which often are difficult and time consuming” (Christie and White, 1997: 168). The resultant view of “local knowledge as non-knowledge” is based on “irrationality and ignorance” (Nygren, 1999: 271). With respect to coastal management, processes within the coastal environment are complex and the need for a holistic understanding is crucial for an approach’s efficacy, and “by capitalising on knowledge that already exists, redundancy is avoided” (Christie and White, 1997: 167).

Local knowledge has become an increasingly important commodity in management systems, due to its holistic approach in learning by trial-and-error experience to create equilibrium with nature (Nygren, 1999). Utilising local knowledge is causing a paradigm shift, developing new approaches to resource management (Christie and White, 1997). Typical science endeavour focuses on singular systems such as: social, or, a natural system, rather than looking at the linkages between them. Local knowledge is perceived to be the tool to assist the understanding of these linkages (Figure 3) (Berkes and Folke, 2002). Furthermore, local knowledge can be perceived as a form of social/cultural capital existing as in a qualitative hierarchy: “information, knowledge, understanding, wisdom” (Berkes and Folke, 2002: 121). The idea of local knowledge being a form of capital could be an important leverage tool that communities can use to promote their claim as a respected stakeholder, particularly given the impetus placed on market-value within resource management.

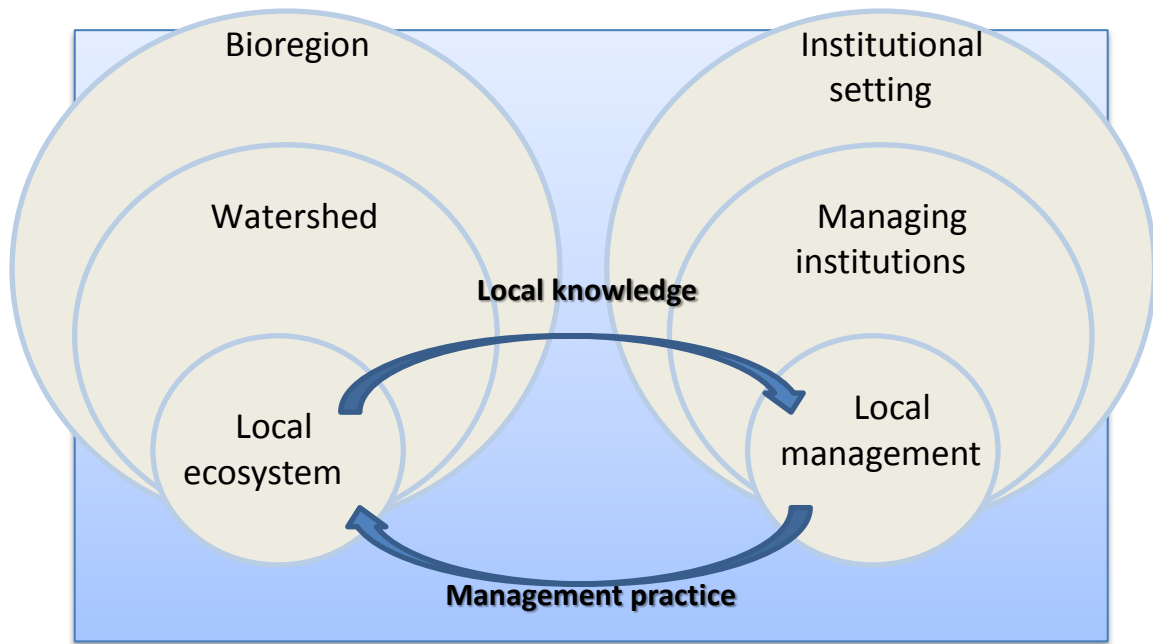


Figure 3 Conceptual framework for the analysis of linked social-ecological systems (Source: Berkes & Folke, 2002: 124).

2.2.4 The community benefits of community involvement in coastal management.

Emphasis for community involvement in coastal management up until this point has focussed on how it benefits the efficacy of the management process itself. Attention will now advocate why community involvement is important for the communities involved, by looking at how involvement can increase a community's resilience.

Community resilience is a community's ability to cope with changing social, economic and environmental change (Wilson, 2012). Wilson (2012) theorises that community resilience is at its strongest when social, economic and environmental capital are equally developed and managed as illustrated in figure 4. Community involvement in coastal management, through the use of local knowledge and developing sets of values provides social capital to any approach. It also creates a far more holistically guided perception, allowing for not only equal inclusion of the three spheres seen in figure 4 but also the ability to analyse the linkages between the spheres. Increased community resilience is ultimately the benefiting reason prompting initial community engagement in any form of coastal management.

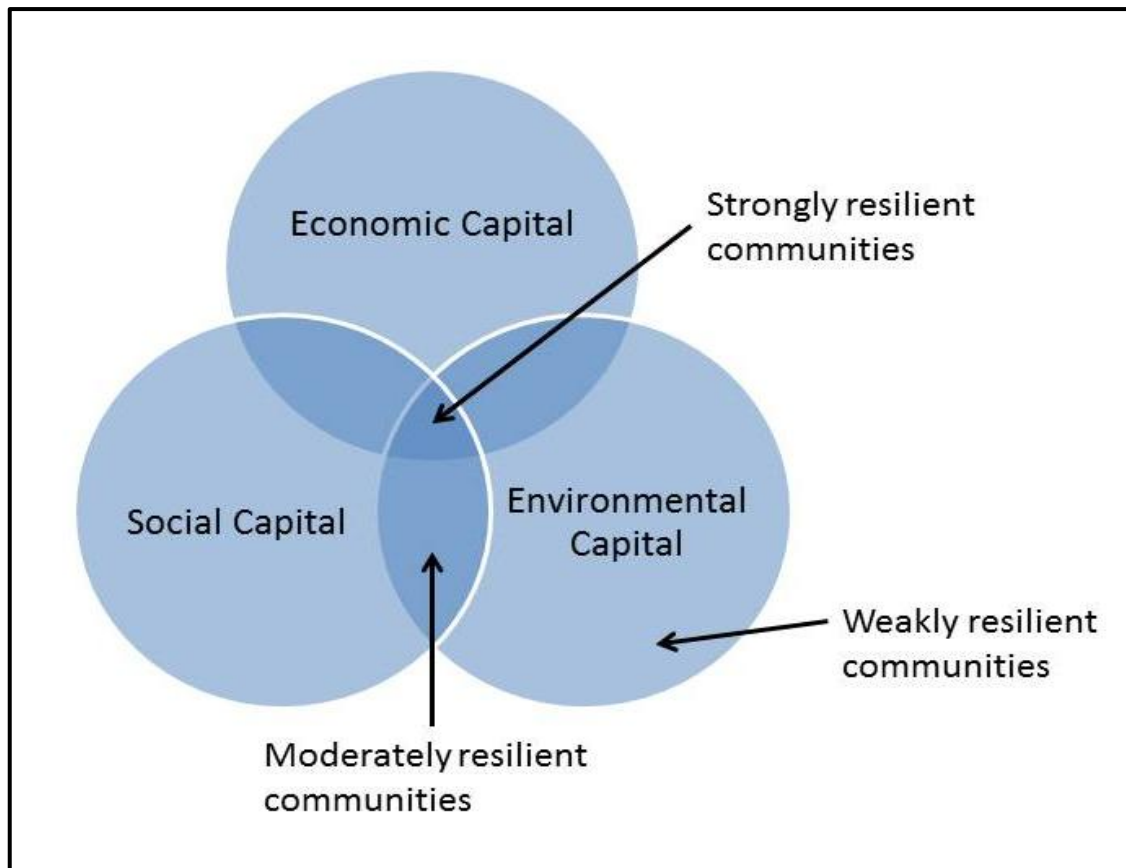


Figure 4 Schematic showing how community resilience is at its strongest at the intersection of social, economic, and environmental capital (Source: Wilson, 2012: 24)

2.3 Defining ‘community’

Given the considerable emphasis this thesis places on embedding ‘community’ into coastal management practice, it is pertinent to accurately identify what ‘community’ means in this context. Outlining the contextual parameters of ‘community’ in this section will alleviate any confusion of its use in this thesis, given the term’s reputation for being malleable in its definition and utilised in a colloquial fashion. This section also highlights issues surrounding: the difficulties of defining singular communities, the lack of a definition for ‘community’ in coastal management literature, and the inequalities communities can face when being identified as a stakeholder.

2.3.1 Providing a contextualised definition for ‘community’.

A predominant definition of community is a longstanding illusion that continues to plague social theorists (England, 2011). This is “because it is so elastic and various in its meanings” (Day, 2006: 1). In a broad sense, community “suggests any or all of the following: common needs and goals, a sense of the common good, shared lives, culture and views of the world, and collective action” (Silk, 1999: 8). Silk (1999: 8) further explains these qualities are “maximised when there is unmediated face-to-face contact between people, as when they share a restricted territory.”

The inclusion of spatial confines in the definition of community is common in literature, for example, in the *Penguin Dictionary of Geography* (Clark, 2003: 85) the opening phrase for community is “a group of people living in a particular area; or living near one another.” Literature also offers alternatives, indicating that communities can also be “non-geographically specific, based on class, gender, ethnicity, sexuality etc.” (Dalby and Mackenzie, 1997: 100).

In the context of this thesis it is geographically bounded local communities that are of interest. For practical reasons, if coastal management is to place impetus on community based approaches, the assumption must be: that these approaches are spatially oriented at a local level and that the practice can be extrapolated through the vertical hierarchy of governance; aiming for positive cumulative effects on a national level. Furthermore, community in this context relates to the interactions people have with their localised coastal environment, which for some reason or another will have unique qualities and processes. Wilson (2012: 8) best defines the application of ‘community’ in the desired context of this thesis as, “the totality of social system interactions (i.e. an affective unit of belonging and identity and a network of relations)... within a defined geographical space.”

2.3.2 Problems with assuming a ‘singular’ community.

The communities chosen for the investigations of this thesis are Waiheke Island and Kaikoura they are distinct geographically bound townships that have their own unique coastal environments. Waiheke Island is most obviously an island with its perimeter being a coastal environment, so the collective households on the island construct the Waiheke Island community in question. However, holiday homes and its proximity to metropolitan Auckland provide further people that consider themselves part of the community. Kaikoura is a coastal township on the South Island. It is situated on and around the Kaikoura Peninsula. The area has some easily identifiable physical boundaries including: The Clarence River (to the North), the Conway River (to the South) and the Southern Alps (to the West). Distance to neighbouring towns and cities and the limited number of access ways are also contributing factors that isolate the Kaikoura community.

Many communities can exist within distinct geographical boundaries (Wilson, 2012). Thomsen *et al.* (2009) identify two overarching types of communities: communities of place (residents) and communities of interest (tourists, shareholders, external management agencies). And of course the identities of gender, ethnicity, class etc. also exist within these areas. These complexities of communities within communities are without a doubt inherent of the chosen areas of study. So the desired collection of commonalities may instead reflect a catalogue of difference (Panelli and Welch, 2005). But because the central theme is the situated coastal environments, defining a community within geographical boundaries is important. The diversity in social construct within communities promotes the need for analysis at this level; otherwise they would not be known and all needs and values would not be included in coastal management practice.

2.3.3 The absence of ‘community’ within community-based coastal management.

By reviewing community-based coastal management literature, it became apparent that a definition of ‘community’ within the confines of community-based coastal management was an under-represented notion. Literature focusses on: the need for community involvement (Ellsworth *et al.*, 1997; Hegarty, 1997; Hildebrand, 1997), the type of information communities can provide (Gunderson and Holling, 2002; Hegarty, 1997; Kearney *et al.*, 2007) and the benefits it can provide to the efficacy of coastal management and to the communities themselves (Charles *et al.*, 2010; Christie and White, 1997; Wilson, 2012). The meaning of community is not explicitly mentioned in these references which lead to the assumption; that the idea and meaning of community within coastal management is largely assumed.

The only paper found that directly investigates the definition of community in coastal management is Thomsen’s *et al.* (2009: 1316) paper named: *Defining Community: Understanding the Meaning of ‘the community’ in Coastal Zone Management*. In which the term ‘community’ is firstly identified as an “overarching pathway” that glosses over the complexities of human relationships. The conclusion of the paper was the two types communities mentioned earlier. This description of community is not wrong although the terms: communities of place and of interest could also be contested, as place based communities have an interest and interest based communities need specific places to base their activity. The lack of other literary attempts of a definition reduces any notion of consolidation on the issue, rendering ‘communities’ use as a term in coastal management as ambiguous as the generalised form of community.

2.3.4 The inequalities communities can face as a stakeholder.

Local coastal communities are often categorised as a stakeholder in multi-stakeholder based and co-management coastal management approaches. Stakeholder inclusion attempts to make coastal management more democratic and legitimate (Buanes *et al.*, 2004). This has happened in the wake of accusations proclaiming centralised, top-down management is the reason for environmental degradation (Wiber *et al.*, 2010). However, the term stakeholder often infers corporate connotations (Pomeroy and Douvere, 2008). This effectively continues to support the privatisation of common pool resources (Wiber *et al.*, 2010). Because of this local coastal communities are at risk of being left out, as economic sectors hold “economic power and are politically well connected” (Ounanian *et al.*, 2012: 665).

Effective stakeholder led approaches rely on stakeholder involvement and their contributions. The inclusion or exclusion of these groups can be based on preferential political bias (Buanes *et al.*, 2004). There is an increasing recognition for the inclusion of environmental and social values, but if paradigms continue to be based on satisfying cost-benefit criteria these values cannot be accounted for (Wattage and Mardle, 2005). The problem being, environmental and social values and capital are

difficult to quantify in an economic sense (Wattage and Mardle, 2005). If communities are to be dubbed a stakeholder, a more holistic approach is needed to move away from privatised paradigms allowing for the full appreciation of non-monetary values and concerns.

2.4 Beach cultures

Matthewman (2004) highlights, that the coast is not only a littoral zone between the land and the sea, but a liminal zone between nature and culture situated at the junction of space and place. The interactions and interpretations people place on their coastal environment and vice versa, are as diverse as the coastal landscapes themselves. The coastal environment is an environment of great significance in New Zealand. The New Zealand coastline is imbued with notions of history, tradition, recreation, resource use, inspiration, and has been a prevalent setting for popular culture. It has iconic status and assists in the creation of a national identity. Because of the coast's significance, the management of the coastal environment has special mention in resource management in New Zealand in the form of the NZCPS. Therefore, for coastal management to be effective it is important to understand beach cultures to identify how New Zealanders perceive their coastal environments and how those environments shape our perceptions.

This section aims to reflect on theories drawn from human geography to explore how the coastal environment is a liminal zone, where place and experience mould unique cultures worthy of special mention in resource management. By illustrating the differences between Maori and Pakeha experiences of the coast, the use of the pluralised term 'cultures' is deemed more appropriate in its application in coastal management. Evidence is also provided to show that experience of the coastal environment today is a mix of historical tradition and modern ideologies, creating a common sense of place and a national identity.

2.4.1 Exploring the dualistic relationship between people and the environment.

The suggestion of the existence of beach cultures supposes a dualistic relationship between people and the coastal environment. Simultaneously, people can 'effect' the environment by instilling a place with meaning, whilst the environment can 'affect' our choices and ultimately the way we live (Malpas, 1999). To provide evidence supporting the notion of a place based culture, it is pertinent to investigate this relationship. Firstly, the idea of place will be explored; this will provide the ingredients needed to help understand the abilities of 'effect' and 'affect' in this dualistic relationship. Lastly, the realisation of the indivisibility of this relationship will be noted.

Tim Cresswell (2009) suggests that a place is made up of three elements: location, locale and sense of place. 'Location' refers to the geographical positioning of place and 'locale' refers to the physical construct of a place. A 'sense of place' lies within us but is influenced by the environments we encounter (Relph, 2008). Through personal interpretation, we seek to invest a place with meaning –

this is a sense of place (Tuan, 1977). Location and locale can be known without actually experiencing a place, for example, you can pinpoint a place on a map and you know about locales (particularly iconic structures and landscapes) through contact with various media. Location and locale are obviously important aspects of place, particularly when we look at specific places, which is important when examining localised community scale beach cultures (next subsection). However, the sense of place phenomenon is the most crucial element of place for developing culture and is intimately linked to the dualistic relationship being described here.

A person's ability to 'effect' an environment stems from their ability to interpret an environment as they please. A sense of place does this through investing meaning in a place and is achieved through a mixture of emotive (values, sentiments) and cognitive (sight, sound, smell, touch) components (Hummon, 1992). This can only occur when there is experience and often attachment to place (Tuan, 1977). Because of this invested meaning, experienced places have the greatest importance for people.

Much of the literature on New Zealand 'beach culture' - identifies New Zealanders as coastal people. No one is more than 130 kilometres away from the coast (Barnett and Wolfe, 1993; Lay, 2007; Peart, 2009). Therefore, it can be argued that experience of the coast is almost an inherent fact of being a New Zealander. This collective experience subjects the New Zealand coastline to a large number, and wide range of senses of place. As a result, investing meaning in the coast is a national habit.

The environment can undoubtedly 'affect' a person. Primarily, how we read forces external to the person shapes our choices and responses. To understand this 'affect' in the context of developing place-based cultures, focus must be drawn to the fact that environments (particularly special environments that offer cherished memories) provide vital stimuli prompting thought and the desire to develop a sense of place. Through personal experience, persistent exposure to an environment can lead to a change of, or, the formation of new perceptions of that environment and other environments.

Difficulty arises in attempting to describe people's effect and the environment's affect singularly. It is largely impossible to define one without inferring the other and the attempts above reflect that. This is because both, effect and affect are relationships rather than entities and because of this they are indivisible. As Malpas (1999: 2) states, "nature is both humanized and humanizing." In this sense people and place are inseparable. With that being said the notions of 'culture' and 'environment' also intersect (Tuan, 1974). So a culture based in a place such as a beach is certainly possible. Peart (2009: 65) eloquently describes "the coast is part of what it is to be a New Zealander. Our history is steeped in our coastal environment, as is our present. It is deeply ingrained in our culture and identity." Our individual experiences of the coast and our unique sense of place within our coastal environments contribute to this collective idea of national identity and culture. But our individual meanings also present problems in defining a singular culture in this respect. This is why there is a need to identify 'primary blocks' that culminate individual experience.

2.4.2 Community scale beach culture.

The section above suggests the coastal environment is a significant environment that plays a pertinent role in the development of our national identity and culture. An understanding of beach cultures is an important foundation of coastal management, as they are the basis for producing the values that need protecting. The common values derived from national scale beach cultures are accommodated for within the content of the NZCPS. It mentions objectives that acknowledge the need to: protect the environment, maintain public access, acknowledge the Treaty of Waitangi etc. This section further promotes the application of greater community involvement in coastal management, as it explains why exploration of beach cultures would be most appropriate at the community level.

The application of coastal management based on common values derived from national scale beach cultures may not suffice for any given coastal community, as localised beach cultures will be as varied as the New Zealand coastal environment. Furthermore, obtaining information on individual beach cultures and values would be a gargantuan task. So, to meet in the middle, coastal management could focus on place-specific cultural interests. Communities should be the basis of detailing individual senses of place because of the commonality they share; their coastal environment.

The common coastal environment allows for community scale beach cultures to be the primary unit of cohesion; where community attachment and sentiment allows for a feeling of congruence with respect to both culture and landscape (Riley, 1992). Experiences and the ‘affect’ of the coastal environment can be most easily accounted for at a community level, leading to the illustration of a community’s attitudes and values. This can be achieved by investigating the community’s history and experience in the context of their physical setting (Tuan, 1974). Furthermore, there is also always conflict within communities. This contest prompts the first need to recognise the existence of ‘beach cultures’. In this sense, focus at a community level can not only develop the smallest units of cohesion, but effectively manage the earliest signs of conflict and cultural difference.

In conclusion, individual senses of place can be effectively collated at a community scale level because they share a common coastal environment and associated history. This accumulated sense of place can create community scale beach cultures from which values and perceptions can be described. The identification of local communities as the primary level of a cohesive culture provides further evidence for the need to focus coastal management efforts at a local community level.

2.4.3 The need to apply ‘beach cultures’ in a pluralised form

Already within this section, place based cultures have been proven to exist on many levels, from a national level where the coastal environment plays a pivotal role in the nation’s identity, down to an individual level where the creation of values and perceptions is developed by individual experience of an environment. Furthermore, the conflict within communities reflects cultural difference. So the use

of the term ‘beach cultures’ rather than ‘beach culture,’ already has some substance. Here, further emphasis is placed on the need to use the pluralised term as to acknowledge our nation’s ethnic diversity and therefore the existence of more than one culture. Because experience of the coast is not a uniform venture, Maori and Pakeha perceptions and interactions of the coast will be compared to show how cultural heritage and tradition can shape how we invest meaning into our coastal environments.

Pakeha beach culture is one of recreation, where the coast is a marker of the good life (Turner, 1999). Literature on the subject, portrays beach culture through: descriptions of relaxed bathing laws and the shrinking of swimwear, romantic recollections of love at the beach and other more family oriented activities such as sun bathing, fish n’ chips, hokey pokey ice cream and spending holidays at the bach or at a campground (Barnett and Wolfe, 1993; Collins and Kearns, 2010; Lay, 2007; Peart, 2009). This culture has evolved over time from the coast being an anchorage point for initial contact to a place of harvest with whaling and sealing dominating early effort (Turner, 1999). The current notion of culture is threatened by the conflict between conservation and consumption (Matthewman, 2004). As this desire to use the coast is placing increasing pressures on the very qualities we perceive as intrinsic values that cause us to flock there in the first place.

Traditional Maori culture also has an affinity with the coast that is also constitutive of identity (Malpas, 1999). But rather than a place for pleasure, Turner (1999: 31) mentions the coast is a place “understood as conjoining genealogical history and natural ecology” – an understanding that closely reflects Matthewman’s (2004) idea of the coast being a liminal zone. Maori too have anchorage origins on New Zealand’s shores as they arrived in sea-faring canoes (King, 2003). The dominant coastal activity for Maori is the gathering of kai-moana, and has been a pivotal component in the Maori diet since the first peoples (Whaanga, 2009). Turner’s (1999) description of genealogy and ecology highlights how traditional Maori culture perceives the coastal environment and this is evident through their efforts in resource management. The direct affiliation Maori have with the land is derived from the ideology of them being tangata whenua (people of the land) (Hay, 1998). Illustrated through the genealogical network of Papatuanuku (the ‘environmental family’ figure 5) (Roberts *et al.*, 1995). This brought about their need to act as ‘kaitiaki’ (guardians) to protect their environment as it was also their genealogy. Kaitiakitanga (Guardianship) was governed by complex ‘laws’ or tribal tikanga based on respect and reciprocity (Roberts *et al.*, 1995).

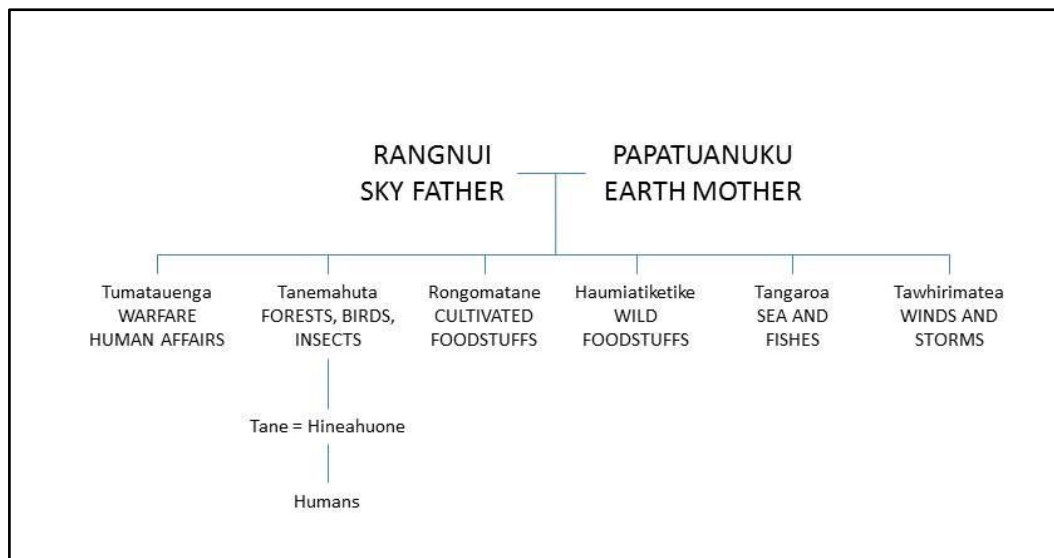


Figure 5 Environment family (Source: Roberts *et al.* 1995)

Full immersion of traditional Maori culture and its resource management approach into the prevailing Pakeha culture is a constant struggle for Maori, where Maori custom or words are “debased and divorced from its traditional cultural setting” (Roberts *et al.*, 1995: 7). The two traditional world views need to be integrated with considerable care to ensure both cultures can flourish. This is why it is best to acknowledge that there is more than one culture in the context of coastal management and that acceptance of the pluralised term ‘beach cultures’ is needed.

With a brief outline of the Maori and Pakeha beach cultures with the contrast of recreation vs. food gathering to provide an example of difference, it is clear to see that a person’s affinity with the coast can be dictated by traditional teachings and actions prevalent in one’s own culture. Here, an acceptance must also be noted of a ‘grey’ area. Where, in a modern New Zealand shaped by popular culture and modern perception, Maori and non-Maori are all still New Zealanders. The plethora of beach activities can be experienced by all. But tradition and heritage are long-learned lessons that should not be forgotten. The case studies of Waiheke Island and Kaikoura provided the opportunity to explore the difference between beach cultures particularly that of the exemplified Maori and Pakeha views, as it becomes apparent within the latter chapters that community aspirations and methodology with respect to coastal management can be largely influenced by the ethnic make-up of the community.

2.5 The New Zealand Coastal Policy Statement: Evolution and Implementation

On the 3rd of December 2010 the NZCPS (2010) took effect. This second generation statement replaced the original NZCPS (1994). Firstly, this section explores the evolution of the only mandatory national policy statement under the RMA (1991) by identifying shifts in the planning context and highlighting the lessons learnt from the implementation of the first NZCPS (1994). This will provide

the evidence necessary to understand the format and content of the NZCPS (2010). Secondly, an investigation into how ‘community involvement’ is represented within both national statements will be described and the origins of objective six of the NZCPS (2010) will also be discussed.

2.5.1 Changing perceptions, roles and formats: key constituents for an effective second generation national coastal policy statement.

National coastal policy statements are certainly shaped by the coastal issues present during the time of drafting. Elements of the NZCPS (2010) that are new, missing or the same with respect to the NZCPS (1994) illustrate how coastal issues have evolved with the nation’s perceptions of its coastal environments. These elements reveal what is currently of national priority for the management of the coastal environment.

The NZCPS (1994) strictly adhered to section 58 of the RMA (1991) ‘Contents of New Zealand coastal policy statements.’ Each point raised in section 58 had its own chapter in the NZCPS (1994). The ‘matters’ prescribed in section 58 were effectively the perceived coastal issues of the time. These focussed on: the preservation of natural character, subdivision, use and development, and the protection of characteristics that have special value to Maori. Several amendments have since been made to section 58 reflecting further issues including:

- The term ‘*objectives and*’ was added, allowing for both objectives and policies to be present in a NZCPS;
- The matter - ‘*national priorities for maintaining and enhancing public access to and along the coastal marine area*’ was added; and
- The matter of ‘*protected customary rights*’ was also added.

In an independent review for the Minister of Conservation of the NZCPS (1994), Rosier (2004) identified significant shifts in the planning context (summarised below) that the NZCPS (1994) no longer catered for.

- On-going demand for subdivision, development and use;
- Increased knowledge and documentation on coastal hazards;
- Rapid expansion in aquaculture/marine farming;
- Community concern about the effect of sewerage discharge and other pollutants on water quality; and
- Increased concern about the impacts of sedimentation.

The NZCPS (2010) seeks to accommodate the amendments to section 58, and the issues mentioned above by Rosier (2004). In the *Summary of evaluation under section 32 of the Resource Management*

Act 1991 (Minister of Conservation, 2010b), a list (below) of policy areas within the NZCPS (2010) that show the most significant change with respect the NZCPS (1994) is identified:

- Strategic & spatial development for development
- Planning for aquaculture and ports
- Preserving natural character and protecting outstanding natural features and landscapes
- Enhancing degraded water quality and managing sedimentation
- Managing coastal hazard risks
- Identifying & protecting sites and resources of particular importance to Maori
- Maintaining public access and controlling vehicles on beaches

(Minister of Conservation, 2010b: 9)

Not only did the NZCPS (2010) require the inclusion of more recent issues. The second generation national coastal policy statement had to deliver a more direct approach. At the time of gazettal the NZCPS (1994) assumed the RMA (1991) was ‘an enabling act’. As a result the NZCPS (1994) was not prescriptive and offered only advice on ‘fond hopes’ for the coastal environment and was mostly open for interpretation (Gregory, 2008: 145). The NZCPS (2010) provides a more specific and directive policy than the NZCPS (1994), to make it more effective (Minister of Conservation, 2010b). To ensure effect is actually given, the Department of Conservation (DOC) is also actively involved in supporting the implementation of the NZCPS (2010). DOC setup an implementation steering group which has released a ‘*national implementation plan*’(NZCPS 2010 Implementation Steering Group, 2011: 1), aimed at councils and other decision-makers, it “identifies priority actions to support the interpretation and implementation of the NZCPS (2010).” The national implementation plan (2011) does this by:

- Providing an integrated and focussed approach: spanning regions and districts and involving decision-makers.
- Ensuring transitional issues are appropriately managed.
- Providing guidance and implementation support on particular topics or areas where necessary.
- Providing for monitoring and evaluation of the NZCPS 2010’s implementation.

This is a more hands on role for DOC, as the implementation of the NZCPS (1994) had no such group initiated. The assistance provided by the steering group should stem undesirable interpretations around any ambiguities still present, ensuring uniformity across regional plans and policies. It should also decrease the amount of time needed to design the regional level plans and policies, as David Gregory (Environment Canterbury, Senior Coastal Planner) mentioned in an interview that the ambiguities around the un-prescriptive form of the NZCPS (1994) provided hurdles for regional councils as they had to interpret the document before implementing it.

The more direct approach is also evident in the form of the document. It has a clear set of seven objectives that reflect the nation's key issues and values currently present within the coastal environment and twenty nine detailed policies that are designed to cater for these objectives. This form does not mirror the listed structure of section 58 of the RMA (1991) (evident in the NZCPS 1994), it takes the requirements of a national coastal policy statement on-board and creates a document that can stand alone and provide clear direction more effectively than its predecessor.

2.5.2 The chronological evolution of the New Zealand coastal policy statement.

The requirement to independently review the NZCPS (1994) no later than nine years after its gazettal was a measure embedded into the NZCPS (1994) to assess its effectiveness. Rosier (2004) recommended that the NZCPS (1994) be formally reviewed in light of a shift in planning context and issues surrounding the vague nature of the document. To maintain relevance and effectiveness, the national coastal policy statement had to go through many stages and processes to: understand current perception of the New Zealand coastal environment and amend the issues learnt from implementing the NZCPS (1994). This ultimately ended in the gazettal of the NZCPS (2010).

The sequence of processes that occurred is illustrated by figure 6 which highlights the important documents in chronological order. Key documents that aided the development of a second generation national coastal policy statement were: Rosier's (2004) review which identified the need for change to the original statement, the *Issues and Options paper* (Strategy and Policy Group, 2006) which identifies a set of issues that need addressing and options that offer solutions, and the proposed NZCPS (PNZCPS) (2008) which was the first document that reflected the current structure of the active NZCPS. Importantly for the focus of this thesis, both the issues and options paper and the PNZCPS (2008) offered the opportunity for people and communities and other stakeholders to provide their opinion through a submission process. In the Board of Inquiry (BOI) report (2009) on the PNZCPS (2008), they revealed that there were 539 submissions including community and recreational groups. They admitted that the calibre of the submissions were high, reflecting "not just the obvious passion New Zealanders have for the coastal environment but also a widespread concern that there is an immediate need to improve our coastal management" (Board of Inquiry, 2009: 4).

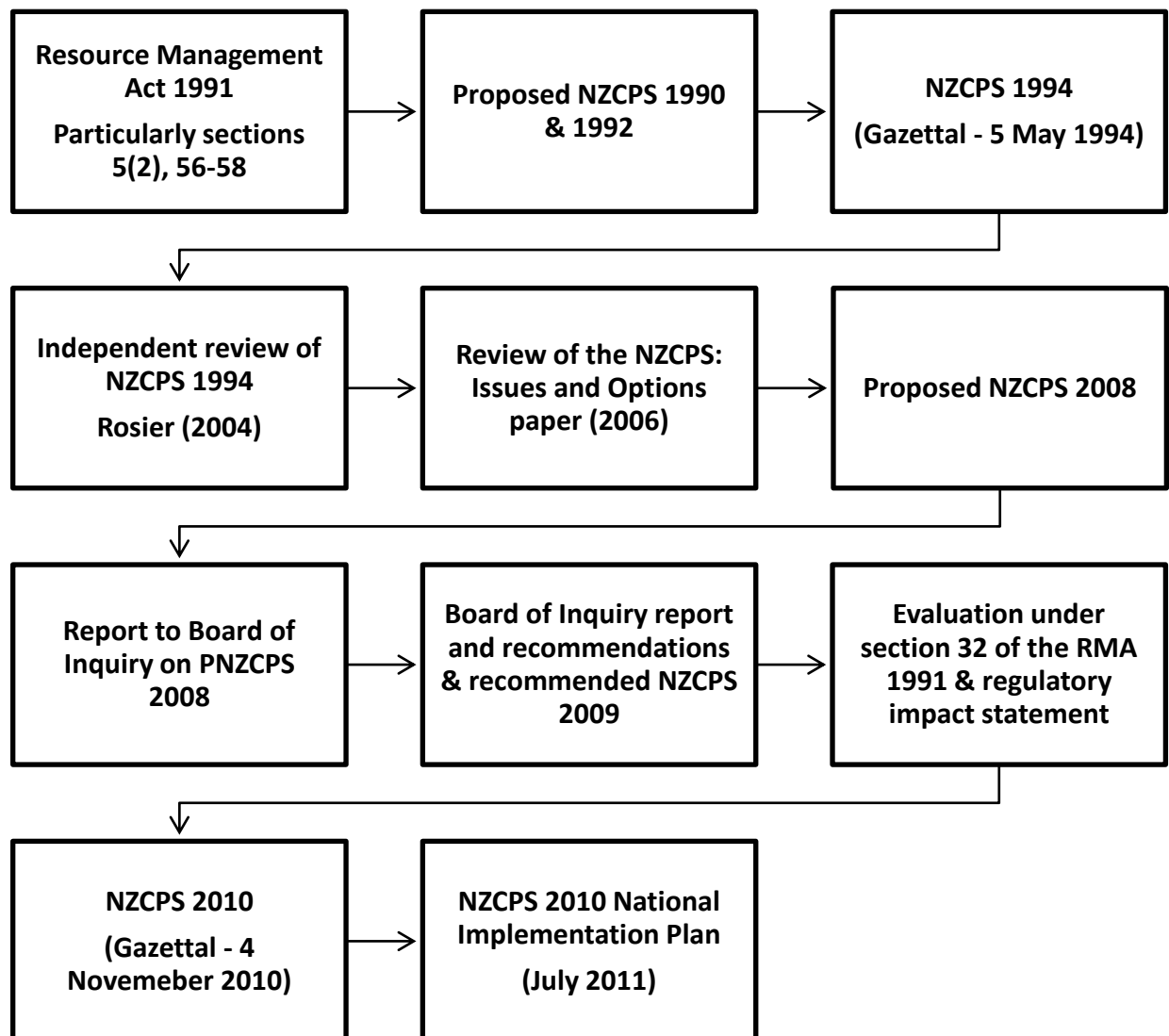


Figure 6 key documents of change associated with the review of the NZCPS (1994) (Source: Author)

2.5.3 Community involvement in the New Zealand coastal policy statements.

The initial idea for this thesis stemmed from critically analysing objective six of the NZCPS (2010). The opening phrase states: “To enable people and communities to provide for their social, economic, and cultural wellbeing and their health and safety, through subdivision, use, and development.” On face value alone it would not be unusual to assume that any implementation of this objective would require information on community and individual values and interests as these underlie social, economic, and cultural wellbeing. This then, assumes that communities must be involved at some point to provide this information. However, within the twenty nine policies created to deliver the

objectives in the NZCPS (2010), there is no explicit mention of community involvement or the encouragement of it.

To a degree, community involvement in the NZCPS (2010) is assumed; through the wording of objective six, and through public participation in the submission processes that preceded the creation of the NZCPS (2010). The NZCPS (2010) is a document that has been derived from many others. The wording of objective six is no different, as the phrases and points made in the objective are a piecemeal of bygone and transitional documents. Table 4 shows the origins of the phrases contained within objective six. Furthermore, it shows that some concern for the wellbeing of communities has been present from the onset, being represented in the RMA (1991) and the NZCPS (1994).

Table 4 the origins of phrases contained in objective 6 of the NZCPS 2010

Objective 6	Origin of phrase
To enable people and communities to provide for their social, economic, and cultural wellbeing and their health and safety, through subdivision, use, and development, recognising that:	RMA 1991 Section 5(2)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The protection of the values of the coastal environment does not preclude use and development in appropriate places and forms, and within appropriate limits; 	NZCPS 1994 Principle 2
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some uses and developments which depend upon the use of natural and physical resources in the coastal environment are important to the social, economic and cultural wellbeing of people and communities; 	NZCPS 1994 Principle 1
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Functionally some uses and developments can only be located on the coast or in the coastal marine area; 	Board of Inquiry recommendations
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The coastal environment contains renewable energy resources of significant value; 	Board of Inquiry recommendations
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The protection of habitats of living marine resources contributes to the social, economic and cultural wellbeing of people and communities; 	NZCPS 1994 Principle 6
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The potential to protect, use, and develop natural and physical resources in the coastal marine area should not be compromised by activities on land; 	Board of Inquiry recommendations
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The proportion of the coastal marine area under any formal protection is small and therefore management under the Act is an important means by which the natural resources of the coastal marine area can be protected; and 	NZCPS 1994 Principle 3
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Historic heritage in the coastal environment is extensive but not fully known, and vulnerable to loss or damage from inappropriate subdivision, 	PNZCPS 2008

use, and development.	
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To gauge whether or not community involvement is a topic of increasing importance, an investigation into previous policy statements (including drafts) looking for obvious mention of community involvement was undertaken. The document that provided the most impetus for involving the community was the draft New Zealand Coastal Policy Statement of (1990). This draft pre-dates the RMA (1991) but it does acknowledge the RMA (1991) and “has been prepared in a way that meets the requirements of the Resource Management Bill” (Minister of Conservation, 1990: Preface). The draft NZCPS (1990) in relation to community involvement states:

7.2 COMMUNITY AWARENESS AND PARTICIPATION

The community comprises people who have a personal interest in what happens on the coast. They have to live with the consequences of use and development. It is, therefore, important that the community understands proposals and their potential effects on the coastal environment. Local knowledge may be very important for sound decision-making

7.2.1 Plans and decision shall promote understanding, respect and care of the natural character of the coastal environment.

7.2.2 Plans and decisions shall provide for full and early participation by the community.

Specific mention of community involvement to the level devised in the draft NZCPS (1990) is non-existent in all other NZCPS documents. The draft NZCPS (1990) was created by the Labour Government, the accession of the National Government in 1990, saw the RMA (1991) and the NZCPS (1994) made less prescriptive (Le Heron and Pawson, 1996). Subsequently the specific mention of involving communities in coastal management in the draft NZCPS (1990) disappeared. Currently, no impetus is placed on extending community involvement in coastal management beyond existing submission processes. The submission process cannot completely capture local knowledge or local values and issues, as the relationship between community and decision-maker is too indirect.

3.0 Methodology

This chapter outlines the reasons behind the choosing of a comparative case study approach as the best method to investigate community involvement in coastal management. By gathering information from two communities and their respective councils (both locally and regionally) a holistic understanding of the activities, needs, values, and current management practice within their local coastal environments can be obtained. The information is gathered through various methods including: focus groups, questionnaires, face-to-face interviews, other observations, and the use of archived documents. These methods are explained to justify their appropriateness for use in this investigation. The matter of designing an ‘ethical’ approach is also acknowledged within this chapter.

3.1 Case study research.

The main approach to gauge insight into community involvement in coastal management within New Zealand is through case study research. The research involves the use of two case study areas; Waiheke Island, and Kaikoura. The use of these two spatial settings offers the opportunity to analyse, by way of comparative methodology, ways in which communities can be involved in the management of their coastal environments. It will also act as a triangulating tool to see whether community values, interests and issues are accounted for by the decision-makers responsible for the implementation of the NZCPS (2010). This section seeks four objectives; (1) defining case study research in a relevant context for the approach of this research, (2) identifying the ideals, case study research can provide for in order to justify its use, (3) deliberate on the comparative method multiple case studies infer, (4) explain what type of information this approach should deliver in the context of this research.

3.1.1 Defining ‘case study research’

Baxter (2010: 81) defines case study research as “the study of a single instance or small number of instances of a phenomenon in order to explore in-depth nuances of the phenomenon and the contextual influences on and explanations of that phenomenon.” Baxter (2010) continues, mentioning that a case study is an ‘approach’ or ‘methodology’ (a place to test theory) rather than a ‘method’ (mechanism to obtain data).

This research employs two spatial settings, the townships of Waiheke Island and Kaikoura as case study areas. These two areas act as the small number of ‘instances’ mentioned in the above definition. The ‘phenomenon’ or theory to test is: ‘are community needs being met by current coastal management practice, and, how communities can be a part of coastal management.’ Even though the case study areas are spatially different with unique sets of processes and social construct, coastal management within the areas is predetermined by a national level of governance, which at this time is the NZCPS (2010). The use of more than one case study employs a comparative methodology, where

the similarities and differences between the multiple case studies provide the insight into the phenomenon in question (Herbert, 2010).

3.1.2 The ideals case study research provide for.

At the heart of this investigation, is determining community needs and wants provided for by their coastal environments. When these needs span across social, economic, cultural wellbeing and health and safety domains the answers are certainly individual and are emotive, as a result, they would most likely be difficult to quantify with respect to opinions made by others. Case study methodology provides for the intensive and holistic approach needed to analyse the complexity of such feedback (Baxter, 2010). When dealing with a complex network of perceptions within a community, the depth of understanding and the ‘contextualised’ understanding is far more important than a statistical analysis (Baxter, 2010). The primary concern for case study research is to develop coherent theory and this research is no different. Case studies achieve this by balancing concepts and concrete details of the case (Baxter, 2010).

A common criticism of case studies is its inability to generalise, but this assumes only ‘statistical generalisation’ (Baxter, 2010). Flyvbjerg (2006) argues that statistical generalisation relating to using large sample sizes to provide a high degree of confidence in its application outside the sample itself, is not the only way research can be generalised. Analytical (theoretical) generalisation, however, depends on using a case study’s theoretical framework to establish a logic that could be applicable to other situations (Yin, 2012). Yin (2012) mentions that this is achieved through two steps:

1. Showing evidence of the relationship between the case and the theories imposed.
2. Applying the same theoretical propositions to implicate other situations, outside the completed case study.

Practically this is done by, carefully selecting the cases and creating theory that is neither too abstract nor too case-specific (Baxter, 2010).

3.1.3 Comparative case studies.

“Thinking without comparisons is unthinkable. And, in the absence of comparisons, so is all scientific thought and all scientific research” (Swanson, 1971: 145). This thesis uses comparison to highlight how implementation of the NZCPS (2010) is subject to interpretation and spatial context. By contrasting the results from the two case studies, a description of the factors that both generate difference and those that induce similarity will demonstrate how the proposed theory traverses locales (Herbert, 2010).

The case studies of Waiheke Island and Kaikoura occur within different regional locations. Regional level councils are responsible for the implementation of the NZCPS (2010) within their

regions. The processes that are employed at the regional levels are important in the understanding of how the local coastal environments will be managed. Because the regional level councils contain a variety of communities within their jurisdiction, regional level planning and management is removed from the effects of its rule. The comparative case studies act as a triangulating method to see whether or not community values, interests and issues are accounted for by the regional level decision-makers responsible for the implementation of the NZCPS (2010). Furthermore, because the case study areas are within two different regions the differences in regional council approaches to coastal management and community involvement are realised.

3.1.4 The information expected of comparative case study research.

Within the two case study areas, several methods (such as focus groups, interviews, questionnaires, physical observations, and use of archived documents) were employed to gather many types of information, ensuring holistic results needed to understand the complex networks within the case studies. The primary information collected is largely qualitative due to the open-ended structure of the focus groups and interviews, the feedback is mostly non-numeric (Yin, 2012). The initial inclusion of case studies in this research was to seek information to answer the thesis research questions in Chapter 1. The methods employed within the case studies were therefore, structured in a way that provided information to address these primary questions. Secondly, the case study approach is a reflection of how coastal management practice could involve communities in decision making. In this way the level of success experienced in information gathering and the community reception of this study approach, can indicate the plausibility of these methods for engaging with the community within coastal management practice.

3.2 Choosing the case study areas.

Because this research deals with complex networks of perceptions within communities, the depth of understanding and the ‘contextualised’ understanding is important (Baxter, 2010). Careful consideration is therefore important when choosing case study areas to ensure the contexts are not too restrictive and reveal conclusions applicable to testing the theories outside the case study areas. This section identifies, why context is important for case studies and then describes the constituents that were taken into consideration when choosing Waiheke Island and Kaikoura as case study areas for this research.

3.2.1 Contextual effects: environmental factors and socio-geographical influence, the importance of choosing the right case study areas.

The case studies present the opportunity for the formation of ‘contextualised’ results about community values with respect to their coastal environments and community viewpoints on coastal management and their involvement in it. Community perception is shaped by ‘contextual effects,’ meaning, the local environments (their immediate coastal environment, in this case) and social

interaction (with their local neighbours) can have considerable impact on their attitudes and behaviour (Johnston, 2009). Natural conditions vary amongst different places and these variations determine what people do, and how they perceive the environment (Ernste and Philio, 2009). Similarly, influence from neighbours can lead to a collective behavioural outlook leading to similar perspectives and choices within a community (Lee, 2009). By having two case study areas, comparison identifies the environmental and neighbourhood effects present in each. Identifying and understanding these effects, sets the parameters for the result's generalizability. To keep these parameters wide enough to ensure credibility in this research, the case study areas chosen need to have some qualities that reflect other coastal communities within New Zealand.

3.2.2 Reasons behind choosing the case study areas.

In the endeavour to ensure the case studies can reflect other areas while providing enough difference to determine contextual effects, several considerations were made in the selection of the two areas. Those considerations can be summarised as aspects of: location, physical characteristics, social make-up, and practical matters. These aspects are described below.

Because of the profound effects local environments and neighbours have on perceptions, it was important to choose locations that were far enough apart that environmental conditions and social networks were separate. By choosing Waiheke Island and Kaikoura, the case studies represent both the North Island and South Island respectively, where environmental conditions such as climate and ecology differ. The two distinct locations also reside within two different regions. Waiheke Island is within the jurisdiction of the Auckland Council: a 'Super City' wherein the functions of regional and district level management have been merged. Kaikoura is a township within the jurisdiction of the Canterbury Regional council (ECan) with a local Kaikoura District council, which is a more typical management framework than the Auckland Council. The comparison between the two management structures should provide insight into which method is possibly more effective in coastal management and is timely given the relative infancy of the 'Super City' regime.

The physical characteristics of the coastal environments in each area are also important. Both areas have outstanding coastal attributes that feature as part of their identity. Kaikoura is known for its rich biodiversity particularly with its whales and seals, whom play a large role in the tourism industry in the area. Waiheke Island is part of the Hauraki Gulf, an area deemed outstanding within New Zealand for its quality and diversity of biology and landscape (Minister of Conservation, 2000). Because both coastal environments feature heavily in the regions identity, the assumption was that, community engagement would be relatively straight-forward. The areas differ as Waiheke Island is most obviously an island and Kaikoura is on the mainland of the South Island. Both however have very distinct areas and have clear boundaries, which ensured a relatively clear community perception as outside influences are clearly detached.

Waiheke Island and Kaikoura also offer a wide range of social components that do impact on perception. Elements such as population size, age, gender, socio-economic status, and occupational opportunity set the context for each area. These social confines are determining factors in the development of values, issues and preferred outcomes within the communities. An important social difference between Waiheke Island and Kaikoura was the larger representation of Maori in Kaikoura. This factor distinguishes whether ‘beach cultures’ in this example the Maori vs. Pakeha cultures would be a factor that can be determined at a community level as the theory in 2.4.2 suggests. Both study areas do possess variability within themselves with respect to the elements above, but this type of variation within communities would be common across New Zealand. These elements will be discussed in depth within the results chapters to illustrate the social context of each case study area, and social trends will eventuate and be used to relate to the wider New Zealand context.

The final deciding factor in the choice of case study areas, were the practical matters. This research had no external funding and was largely limited to my own personal funds. Kaikoura offered the free use of the University of Canterbury field station, the Edward Percival Field station. This was utilised for a focus group. On Waiheke Island I had accommodation and initial networking through my partner’s parents who are Waiheke Island residents. Other possible case study areas were ruled out due to lack of resources such as accommodation and function rooms. Furthermore, population size was another important factor, as these small townships were considered to be achievable sample populations (N) given the timeframe of the thesis.

3.3 Types of methods employed within the case study areas to gather information.

Several methods were employed within the case study areas to gather information about the community’s perceptions of their coastal environments and level of involvement in coastal management, as well as current coastal management schemes within those areas. They include focus groups with community residents, open questionnaires, face-to-face interviews with decision-makers, meeting observations, use of documents, and archival news pieces. It was necessary to gather information from such a wide array of sources, due to the complex nature of investigating networks and perception within the context of two case studies. This section describes these methods and the ethical procedures involved in dealing with public consultation.

3.3.1 Ethical procedures involved in dealing with public consultation.

Research ethics can be defined as, “the conduct of researchers and their responsibilities and obligations to those involved in the research, including sponsors, the general public and most importantly, the subjects of the research” (O’Connell-Davidson and Layder, 1994: 55; in Dowling, 2010). Due to the interaction with the public, this research needed to go through an ethics process to ensure the safety of the participants, the researcher, and the University of Canterbury’s name. The

ethics process is done through the Human Ethics Committee (HEC). The process sees an application describing the intended research and the mitigating precautions that ensures the safety of all involved. HEC reviews the application and makes the decision on whether or not the research is ethical, amendments to the design of the research and the application are typical in the endeavour to achieve approved status. This research was no different in this respect. The important aspects HEC is looking for in research, is the approach to privacy and confidentiality and informed consent.

This research asks for participants to comment on their own perceptions about their coastal environment and the way it is managed. When asking about values and issues about their coastal environments, the researcher must acknowledge that the responses may be very personal and may be responses they wish to keep anonymous. This research was developed with HEC to ensure that the methods applied were as non-invasive as possible and all personal information such as name, age, occupation etc. is omitted from the written thesis and the raw manuscripts are kept in storage with access limited to the researcher and supervisors ensuring anonymity is maintained.

This research also acted on the proviso of obtaining informed consent, meaning: Participants know exactly what they are consenting to (Dowling, 2010). Providing the information needed to give participants full understanding of the research, its intentions, and the use and conditions of participation was an important part of the ethics process. Information sheets, consent forms and verbal presentation of this information were delivered when needed.

The most major amendment to the research approach in order to appease the conditions set by HEC was the inclusion of obtaining evidence of Maori consultation. The HEC recommended the inclusion of Maori consultation because of the special regard Maori place on the coastal environment. Even though it was not the intention of this research to isolate any culture, their possible presence within the data needed to be accounted for. The approach therefore, also needed to account for Maori, so the approach or the questions could not be deemed culturally sensitive. Maori consultation was instigated through emails to a member of the Kaikoura Runanga, who (once reading my research questions) stated the “Questions look good to me and they are not at all offensive.” With this consultation evidence, the HEC fully approved the research and allowed for the methods to go ahead.

3.3.2 Focus group methodology

Focus groups are “characterised by dynamism and energy as people respond to the contributions of others” (Cameron, 2010:153). Participants are able to evaluate their own ideas by listening to others and can lead to further information as discussion can prompt further ideas and emotion (Cameron, 2010). This would not occur in individual interviews. Focus groups according to Cameron (2010) work best when numbers are between 6-10 people. All participants are encouraged to talk, with all viewpoints allowed. The researcher acts as a moderator who introduces topics for discussion and keeps the discussion focussed. Typical duration of focus groups is between one and two hours

(Cameron, 2010). For the benefit of this research, focus groups can interrogate a number of meanings the participants attribute to relationships (within their community and with coastal decision-makers) and to places (their coastal environment) (Bosco and Herman, 2010).

Previous experience with my honours project research demonstrated that a focus group methodology can work very effectively when a community is united by a particular issue and have particular perceived outcomes. It was for this reason that I decided to replicate a focus group methodology and assemble these through known pre-existing networks of coastal concern in Kaikoura and Waiheke Island. Furthermore, focus group methodology was deemed the most appropriate method because all viewpoints are allowed and creates a focussed conversation, this lets the participants open up, analyse other perceptions, re-evaluate and/or think of further information. This in-depth level of information was expected to provide for the complex understanding needed about community dynamics with respect to their coastal environment.

Only one focus group eventuated, this was held at the Edward Percival field station in Kaikoura on the 28th of January 2012 at 10.30am. The event was advertised via an email sent to an emailing list of the Te Korowai (a community group in Kaikoura focussed on documenting and maintaining Kaikoura coastal values) the email was sent to forty seven email addresses. The focus group was based around the following topics:

- Values, interests and issues with respect to the coastal environment;
- Defining of what the coastal environment is;
- The extent of current and future involvement in coastal management;
- Thoughts on objective six of the NZCPS (2010) (information on objective six was provided);
- Relationships with local and regional councils; and
- Viewpoint on whether current coastal management schemes are adequate.

3.3.3 Questionnaire

A questionnaire was designed to be open ended to try and emulate the expected results of a successful focus group. The down side to the questionnaire approach was that all supplementary information needed to successfully answer the questionnaire was delivered in written form along with the questionnaire itself. So if a participant did not understand the intensions of the questions or the information provided, the feedback would be less informed and obviously not re-considered alongside other community member responses as the case would be with focus groups. In this sense, the questionnaire is somewhat limited in the level of depth and extent the data can provide (McGuirk and O'Neill, 2010).

The questionnaire contained the following questions:

- What are your values, interests and issues with respect to your coastal environment?
- What is your definition of the coastal environment?
- What is the extent of your current and future involvement in coastal management?
- What are your thoughts on objective six of the NZCPS (2010)?
- What are your relationships like with your local and regional councils, regarding your coastal environment?
- How is information shared with the councils, is this enough?
- What is your viewpoint on current coastal management schemes in your area? Are they adequate? Do you feel that you are a part of them?
- What does 'community' mean to you?
- In your opinion what kind of role would you like your community to play in regard to coastal management?

The questionnaire was utilised in both Waiheke Island and Kaikoura case study areas. In Kaikoura the questionnaire was sent via email to the same emailing list as the focus group. It was also promoted in a local newspaper the Kaikoura Star. On Waiheke Island the questionnaire was circulated at a Waiheke Island Rotary meeting on the 13th of February 2012, a brief speech was presented at the meeting explaining the intent of the research and the expectations of the questionnaire along with a briefing on ethical issues. Paper copies were distributed to the Rotarians at the meeting; there were approximately forty members present. Additional copies were distributed through friends and family (who resided on Waiheke Island) of my partner.

3.3.4 One-on-one interviews

One-on-one interviews were conducted, with decision-makers at national, regional and local levels within each case study area. The reason for this was to gain insight into the professional realm of the coastal management present, on the issues of community involvement and the implementation processes employed at each level. The interviews were based around open ended questionnaires and presented across several mediums including: phone, email, and face-to-face interviews.

An inquiry into national level coastal management, lead to interviewing Graeme Speden, a Senior Policy Analyst for the Department of Conservation. Initial contact was made through email in which following questions were addressed:

- How was the involvement of communities envisaged?
- What defines community(ies) with respect to its mentioning in objective six?
- Who wrote objective six? What is their professional background? What is the process behind authoring this objective?
- Why is there such a clear emphasis on subdivision and development?

- How was objective six expected to be implemented?
- What are the differences between the NZCPS (1994) and the NZCPS (2010) with respect to objective six?

These questions were answered in a replying email and lead to a phone interview, where the following questions elaborated on answers to the previous set of questions:

- Community involvement is intended through consultation on policy statements and plans seem to limit input in a top-down process to input 'at the time' rather than through continued consultation; is this, the case? Or is there some avenue through which communities can continuously be involved?
- It seems that the end result (Objective six) has a strong emphasis on development and subdivision, and yet the draft and the recommendations both include (in the opening phrase); protecting the natural environment as a contributing factor to community prosperity – which was demoted to a bullet point in the final publication. Why is this?
- What dissatisfactions did the Minister have? What was the Minister after in the case of objective six?
- From the Rosier review of the NZCPS (1994) it was noted that there are concerns with the degree to which the principles and policies were reflected in district plans and the implementation. Does the NZCPS (2010) allow for a clearer following or offer more guidance for the local authorities? Are there further documents that aid this?
- Policy four on Integration does not mention communities, is local knowledge, their values and concerns not important? How would Objective six be achieved without full integration of people and community?

Face-to-face meetings were arranged with David Gregory, a Principal Planner (Coastal) for Environment Canterbury and Kath Coombes, a Principal Specialist in the Coastal Environmental Strategy and Policy Department of the Auckland Council. The question designed for them are listed below, respectively:

David Gregory, Environment Canterbury,

Thoughts on Objective six of the NZCPS (2010)

- How will objective six be represented or accounted for in regional policy statements and plans?
- How do you envisage the involvement of individual communities in regional plans and policies?

- Is there a method or process ECan uses that provides for interaction with communities that is or will achieve the implementation of objective six? Are there disparities between communities? Which ones have been proactive?
- Do you think the phrase: ‘subdivision, use, and development’ is an appropriate form of action, given the intention is to provide for ‘social, economic, and cultural wellbeing and their health and safety’? Why do you think the wording was changed from the previous CPS?
- Do you think the NZCPS (2010) is a tool that will advance the involvement of communities in coastal management? What more is needed?

Thoughts on Kaikoura Community

- What has ECan done to help Te Korowai o Te Tai ō Marokura?
- Is having a relationship with this group a good way of getting a feel for the people’s (community’s) needs and feelings?
- Is this a usual relationship with a community within the region?
- Is there anything lacking within the relationship that inhibits progress?
- Can this relationship be an effective way of implementing the ambitions of objective six of the NZCPS (2010) could similar community group relationships across the Canterbury region provide in the same way or is Kaikoura unique?

Kath Coombes, Auckland Council,

- Are the regional policy statements and plans prepared differently under the ‘Super City’ governance?
- Has this amalgamation increased integration between regional aspects of management and district and local levels of management?
- Does the Auckland Council encourage community involvement in coastal management over and above typical submission processes?
- Is a high level of community involvement an ambition of the Auckland Council?
- With regard to Objective six of the NZCPS (2010):
 - How does the Auckland Council identify community values based on social, economic and cultural wellbeing?
 - Do you think subdivision, use, and development are the solution to aiding community values?

Inquisitions into local level management perceptions were also conducted.

Faye Storer, Chair of the Waiheke Island Local Board

- The board plans don't need to implement the NZCPS (2010) as they are prepared under the Local Government (Auckland Council) Act: But is the local board involved in putting your community's interests into the regional level policies that are concerned with the NZCPS (2010)?
- Is the Waiheke Island community particularly active when it comes to engaging with the council?
- How do you communicate the community's voice with the greater Auckland Council, is this an easy task?
- What do you think are the main issues Waiheke Island has within its coastal environment?
- Given your direct link with the community, the values and issues that are concerned with the local coastal environment are obtainable. Do you think that it is possible for the local board to lead locally based coastal policies and plans that are 'values based,' do you think this would be an effective way to approach coastal management?

Winston Gray, Kaikoura Mayor, Kaikoura District Council

- Is the Kaikoura District Council involved in coastal management, if so, how?
- Is the Kaikoura community particularly active when it comes to engaging with the District Council?
- How do you communicate the community's voice with the Regional Council, is this an easy task?
- What do you think are the main issues Kaikoura is facing within its coastal environment?
- Given the council's direct link with the community, the values and issues that are concerned with the local coastal environment could be obtainable through the District Council. Do you think that it is possible for the district council to facilitate locally based coastal management that is 'values based'? Do you think this would be an effective way to approach coastal management?

4.0 Results: Waiheke Island case study

The structure of the results chapters for both the Waiheke Island case study and the Kaikoura case study will follow the same pattern. Firstly, the context is described to illustrate the physical setting of place and the characteristics of the communities themselves. Secondly, a review of current management practice within these areas is presented and used as a baseline to later confer with the third section of the results which entails the feedback received from the communities and their respective councils. Lastly, any current community-based coastal initiatives are mentioned.

4.1 Context

Case study research such as this demands a description of the contextual parameters to ascertain possible conclusions about the results obtained. Here a description of the coastal environment, the physical confines of the community are mentioned. Furthermore, a description of community characteristics is included. An appreciation of these factors sets up the reasons behind current use and perception of the coastal environment, outlining examples of community cohesion, conflicts or contests. Ultimately, it is these factors that should be the driving forces of effective community-based coastal management.

4.1.1 Waiheke Island environmental setting

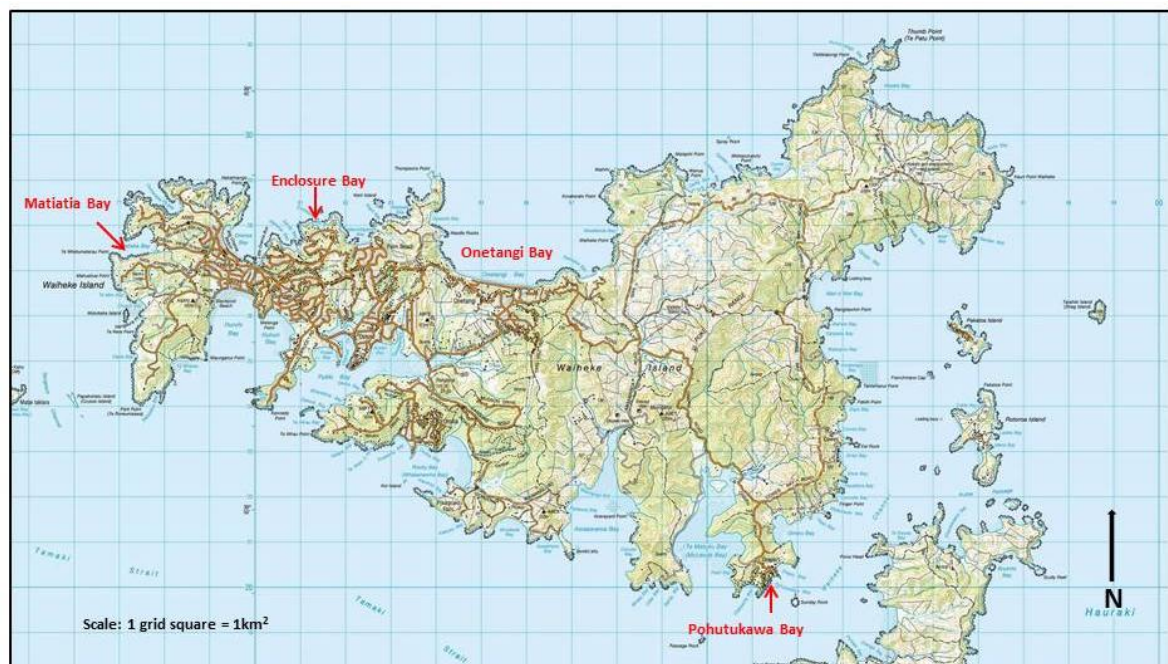


Figure 7 Map showing size of Waiheke Island and coastal environments shown in photos, NB: Density of roads on the western side of Island reflects the majority of the resident population (Source: TopoMap)

Waiheke Island (Figure 7) is approximately 20 kilometres in length and ranges from 1 to 14 kilometres in width (Monin, 1992). It is the second largest island in the Hauraki Gulf at 9,324 hectares (Great Barrier Island being the largest) (Peart, 2007). Being an island, it has obvious physical

geographical confines that easily distinguish a geographically locatable community. However, the fact that it is situated only 17 kilometres from the CBD of Auckland (a 35 minute ferry ride, with a regular timetable) the island residents are very much linked to their greater surroundings (Bercusson and Walsby, 2008). This link of mobility dissolves the initial sense of easily defining the community by way of geographical location, as it provides further intricacies in the coastal use and residential structure of Waiheke Island. These will be mentioned further when revealing the community characteristics and uses of the coastal environment.

Firstly, it is important to illustrate the coastal environments present on Waiheke Island. This is necessary to understand the environmental factors behind: why certain uses, values and issues may be present. Waiheke Island does not have a uniform coastal environment, it plays host to a wide variety of coastal environments and landscapes. The coastal environments that persist on Waiheke Island include: rocky headlands, bays, and cliffs (widespread), long golden sand beaches (predominantly on the north facing beaches), gravel beaches (southern facing beaches), and tidal mudflat areas (predominantly south facing bays). The following figures (8-12) are photographs that illustrate some of these environments. This diversity is part of the allure and popularity of this island and is a reason why many values and uses (and possibly conflict) can take up residence on Waiheke Island.



Figure 8 Enclosure Bay, Waiheke Island. A small mixed composite beach that has a rock formation that almost isolates the bay (Source: Clayton Mitchell)



Figure 9 Onetangi Beach, Waiheke Island. A large sandy beach, largely accessible and popular for water sports and family recreation (Source: Clayton Mitchell)



Figure 10 Pohutukawa Bay, Waiheke Island. An example of a rocky coastal environment on the Eastern side of the Island shows a low density of housing, blending with coastal environment (Source: Author)



Figure 11 Matiatia Bay, Waiheke Island. Showing the passenger ferry leaving for the Auckland CBD and various other moored pleasure craft (Source: Clayton Mitchell)

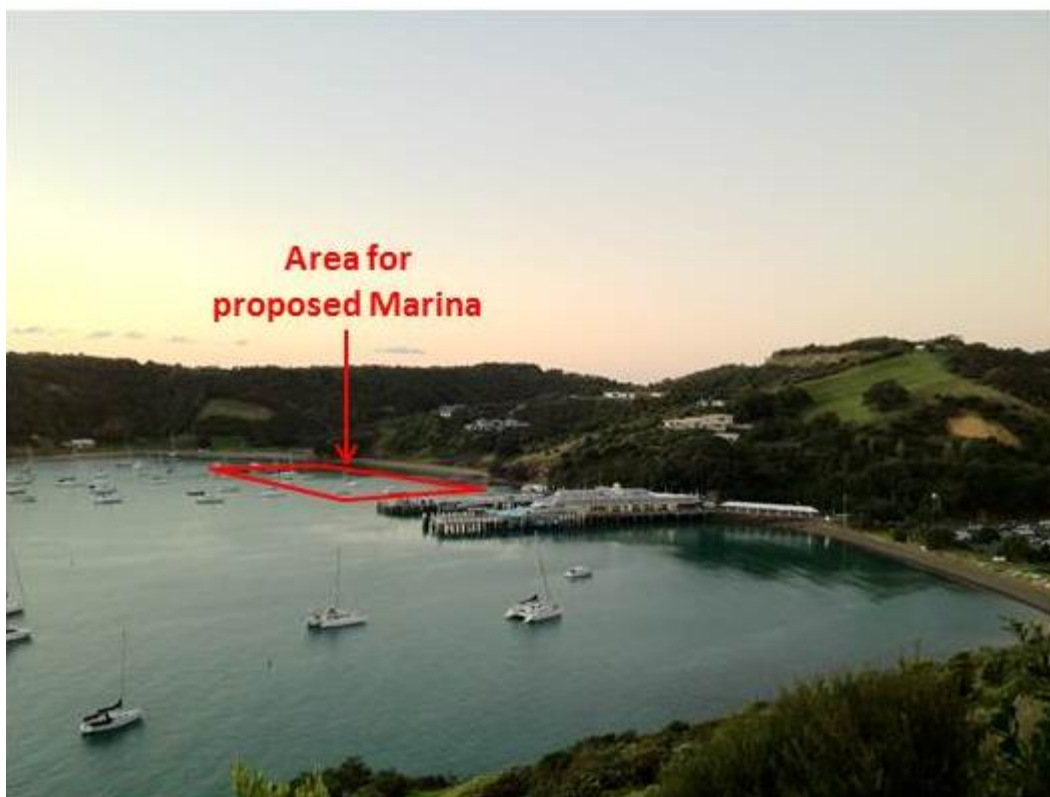


Figure 12 Matiatia Bay, Waiheke Island showing the passenger ferry terminal complex and area for proposed Marina NB: The large homes on the hill above the terminal reflect the Island's popularity for a second 'holiday home' destination for wealthy Aucklanders. (Source: Clayton Mitchell)

4.1.2 Waiheke Island community characteristics

This section briefly describes some aspects of the Waiheke Island community including population size, ethnic make-up, and main sources of income to help illustrate the community's situation and offers reasons for current values, issues and conflict with respect to their coastal environment. Secondly, an account of recent histories cements reasons for current activity and use of the coastal environment. This information also provides the data needed to allow for comparisons between Waiheke Island and Kaikoura.

Waiheke Island has approximately 8,500 residents (Auckland Council, 2011). 2,039 residents work on Island with the local economy driven by tourism with employment largely based in accommodation, food services and retail. The tourism is based on the natural features of the Island and a booming horticultural sector that includes viticulture and olive growing (Auckland Council, 2011). Tourism boosts the population to approximately 40,000 in the summer months (Auckland Council, 2011). An additional workforce of approximately 1,200 people, make the regular ferry commute to mainland Auckland (Auckland Council, 2011).

Table 5 shows how the population on Waiheke Island differs from the national average in its ethnic make-up. Most notably, European residents represent 82.0% of the community, 14.4% above the national average. While Maori representation is 2.3% less than the national average at 12.3%. All other ethnicities are also lower than the national average (Statistics New Zealand, 2006).

Table 5 Ethnic group census data (Source: Statistics New Zealand, 2006) NB: percentages do not total 100% as people had the right to indicate more than one ethnicity

Ethnic Group	National Census Data (2006) (%)	Waiheke Island Census Data (2006) (%)
European	67.6	82.0
Maori	14.6	12.3
Pacific peoples	6.9	3.8
Asian	9.2	2.6
Middle Eastern/Latin American/African	0.9	0.5
Other Ethnicity	11.2	10.6

Initial European contact with the Island in the 19th century was driven by timber extraction (particularly that of the native Kauri tree and Kanuka for firewood) (Bercusson and Walsby, 2008). But was noted early as a prime place for coastal recreation and tourism, namely by Rev. F. T. Baker in 1877 who said, cited in Monin (1992: 171):

It [Waiheke] has only been known as a place from which firewood came to the Auckland market, inhabited by Maoris and wood-cutters. It will, ere long, be known as the residence of many a wealthy settler and from its proximity to Auckland, the beauty of its scenery and climate, cannot fail to be the summer resort of business men and their families seeking rest and recreation. It would be difficult to find another place offering so many advantages in this respect. Sites may easily be obtained for seaside residences and the way would be open for excursions here and there by the land or by water, the place abounding in beautiful sheltered bays with shelly beaches and overhanging Pohutukawas. Bathing, boating and fishing (particularly in the latter), are among the attractions of the place.

In an almost clairvoyant manner Rev. F. T. Baker describes fairly accurately the Waiheke Island, and its uses, of today. It is an Island of tantalising proximity to the Auckland CBD that offers many recreational opportunities and it is most definitely (and exceedingly controversially) a ‘resort paradise’ for the wealthy (as the next sub-section will demonstrate). Just as the coastal environment featured heavily in the Island’s allure accounted for by Rev. F. T. Baker, today the coastal environment plays an integral role in the portrayal of Waiheke Island’s image as a tourism destination and as a place of natural beauty and recreation.

Besides the fall of timber extraction, several more recent events have led to Waiheke Island’s popularity and its image of today. The first being, the relaxing of laws that prohibited nautical navigation after dark to the island in the 1960s and the introduction of the ‘fast ferries’ in 1986 that took only 35 minutes to reach the island from the Auckland CBD (Bercusson and Walsby, 2008). This link allowed for day trips to the island and the freedom to commute to and from the island. The second event that changed Waiheke Island’s image was the introduction of vineyards in the 1970s with the island today, boasting more than 20 vineyards (Fleming, 2008). The vineyards play a pivotal role in the tourism service industry on the island, providing tours, restaurants, and venues for weddings and other events.

Previous to the improvements in ferry transport Waiheke Island was remote. The Island offered refuge for people seeking distance from the high pace lifestyle of metropolitan Auckland. The resulting lifestyle was sleepy and laidback based in humble settings. This lifestyle still permeates through many long-standing residents and their families. The improvements in transport and the shift in its economic role have created an observable change in the community construct. The ‘fast ferries’ and luxurious service sector driven by up-market vineyards and olive groves have opened Waiheke Island up to a new type of resident. These processes have dissolved the sense of remoteness, bringing Waiheke Island well within Auckland’s city limits. Waiheke Island is now perceived as a popular place to live, as professionals can now enjoy the laidback lifestyle once at home but can still work in the city. Furthermore, it is a popular place for Auckland’s wealthy to have second homes. This new style of resident, seek the laidback lifestyle but still demand the facilities and luxuries of modern

urban living. This creates difference within the community, where the original lifestyle is conflicting with the new desire to develop and modernise, quite commonly on the Island referred to as ‘Aucklandising’.

4.1.3 Uses of the coastal environment in Waiheke Island.

This section will highlight a couple of examples of how the coastal environment is used on Waiheke Island. The examples are: the development of wealthy coastal properties and estates on the Island, the second, is a proposal for a new marina complex within Matiatia Bay (figure 12). Both contemporary examples illustrate some of the needs and pressures that the current community place on their environment, and reflect aspects of community cohesion and conflict. Therefore the examples are topical issues that require the attention of coastal management practice.

Waiheke Island has experienced considerable development over the past 15 years with the replacement of modest baches with luxurious homes and is “increasingly becoming a prosperous suburb of Auckland” (Kearns and Collins, 2006: 231). This shift has been prompted by a surge in coastal development that is being steered by wealthy Aucklanders that seek either an island retreat or a very lavish home (Gibson, 2011b).

While this development and the new wealthy residents inject a welcome boost to the local economy, there are several downsides that threaten the very values that enticed the development in the first place. Property prices almost doubled between 2000 and 2003 (Matthews, 2004). With this rapid market growth, houses and land have been priced out of reach for many of the permanent long-standing local residents; threatening population growth (Gibson, 2011b). To illustrate how exorbitant prices are, Peart’s (2009: 102) inquisition into coastal property prices showed that in 2007 estimated beach front properties on Waiheke Island averaged \$2.1 million, properties ‘one back’ from the shore were 25% cheaper and properties ‘two back’ were 50% cheaper. Furthermore, Waiheke Island baches are priced similar to Auckland homes (Matthews, 2004)

The out-pricing of the long-standing locals, threatens to change the community structure – one that prides itself on being ‘laid back’, ‘rustic’, ‘green’ and ‘artistic’ (Auckland Council, 2011; Matthews, 2004). In this sense, subdivision and development is detrimental to the wellbeing of a large proportion of the community which contests the opening phrase of objective six of the NZCPS (2010). A further coastal matter with respect to the wealthy coastal developments on Waiheke Island is the fact that many of them “include private fishing coves, while others span entire bays” (Dickison, 2012). This privatisation of the Waiheke Island coastline hinders the public’s ability to access many bays on the Island. A prime example is the barricading of roads with mounds of earth on Waiheke Island’s ‘bottom end’ (eastern side) in 1992 (Gibson, 2010). These roads passed through the property of the Spencer family; although the barricades are now gone access to the many beaches bordering their property is still prohibited from the road.

The second example of coastal use on Waiheke Island is the proposed marina that is planned for Matiatia Bay (figure 12). The marina will consist of a car park for 50 vehicles on land that is to be reclaimed, 5 floating piers that will have 160 berths, and a 150 metre long floating breakwater (Orsman, 2011). The privately planned venture is not a money making scheme (as the sale of the berths will only cover the costs of construction) but a dream of a Waiheke resident who wants safe housing for his own boat and believes the community needs this infrastructure (Orsman, 2011). There is support for and against the venture; supporters mention the real need for a marina as their boats are currently moored in Auckland and the selection of Matiatia Bay has been justified due to the presence of the existing ferry terminal infrastructure and that it would lessen mooring impacts on other, more pristine coastal areas around Waiheke Island (Orsman, 2011). Arguments against the proposal suggest the marina may harm the character of the island and see it as another attempt to ‘Aucklandise’ the island (Mason, 2011).

These two examples of coastal use on Waiheke Island show that there is conflict largely between the new wealthy residents and land owners who demand high levels of urbanised infrastructure and of privacy and the long-standing residents who want to uphold a lifestyle that is more detached from that of urbanised mainland Auckland. It is a coastal management issue that straddles sustaining community wellbeing with the apprehension of inappropriate development. Waiheke Island’s proximity to Auckland and its natural qualities combined with its dynamic community serve to suggest the conflict with respect to coastal use will continue prompting the need for local level community-based coastal management practice.

4.2 Current coastal management practice on Waiheke Island

Waiheke Island is situated within the Hauraki Gulf and is under the jurisdiction of the Auckland City council. Because of these factors, Waiheke Island is subject to two coastal schemes that are unique to the area and are worth mentioning as both may harbour the ability to approach coastal management at more localised levels. The first coastal scheme is set in the Hauraki Gulf Marine Park Act (HGMPA) (2000) an Act that recognises the national importance of the Hauraki Gulf and provides for a coastal policy statement that is equivalent to a national coastal policy statement. The second is the structure of the newly formed Auckland Council commonly known as the ‘Super City.’ This council combines the old regional council with the district councils to form a single entity. This section aims to describe these two management pathways and highlight possibilities in which both could perhaps serve to increase community involvement in coastal management.

4.2.1 The Hauraki Gulf Marine Park Act (2000)

Section seven (below) of the HGMPA (2000) outlines why the Hauraki Gulf is of national importance:

7 Recognition of national importance of Hauraki Gulf

- (1) The interrelationship between the Hauraki Gulf, its islands, and catchments and the ability of that interrelationship to sustain the life-supporting capacity of the environment of the Hauraki Gulf and its islands are matters of national significance.
- (2) The life-supporting capacity of the environment of the Gulf and its islands includes the capacity-
 - a. To provide for-
 - i. The historic, traditional, cultural, and spiritual relationship of the tangata whenua of the Gulf with the Gulf and its islands; and
 - ii. The social, economic, recreational, and cultural well-being of people and communities:
 - b. To use the resources of the Gulf by the people and communities of the Gulf and New Zealand for economic activities and recreation:
 - c. To maintain the soil, air, water, and ecosystems of the Gulf.

The HGMPA (2000) is treated as a NZCPS within the Hauraki Gulf unless there is conflict between the HGMPA (2000) and the active NZCPS, in which case the intent of the NZCPS would prevail. In this manner, the HGMPA (2000) acts as an area specific NZCPS where the details can be more specific and tailored to the local environment. The Hauraki Gulf Forum was also established to integrate the management, facilitate communication, and co-ordinate constituent parties.

The importance of the HGMPA (2000) and its forum is that the area under its jurisdiction considers the catchment areas and the entire Gulf ensuring that all the coastal processes present are accounted for. Not only does it integrate the coastal environment, it also encompasses all the relevant councils and so has the ability to represent all people and communities within the area. It also has more emphasis on factors within the area other than environmental conservation and protection. It specifies that it is an important space for economic, historical, cultural and recreational factors, which more directly acknowledges human interest than the NZCPS (2010). Because the HGMPA (2000) is place-specific it could have the ability to setup provisions for community involvement.

4.2.2 The Auckland ‘Super City’ Council

The second specific pathway that affects the management of the coast on Waiheke Island is the newly amalgamated entity of the Auckland Council – which now performs roles expected of both regional councils and district/city councils. With respect to coastal management, this should see policy making (typically a regional council task) and planning and service delivery (typically a district/city council task) become more integrated, providing for a consciously balanced outcome.

The Auckland Council has two complementary, non-hierarchical decision-making parts:

- The governing body, consisting of a mayor elected by all Aucklanders and 20 councillors elected on a ward basis
- 21 local boards (Waiheke Island is one of them), with members elected by local board area.

The governing body focusses on the region-wide strategic decisions, while the local boards represent their local communities and make decisions on local issues, activities and facilities (Auckland Council, 2012). The Waiheke Island Local Board has produced its Local Board Plan (2011) in which it sought input from the community on all aspects, values, needs and issues they had. Local boards have the ability to engage well with their community regarding their requirements under the Local Government (Auckland Council) Act (2009). However, the local boards and their plans do not have to consider the NZCPS (2010). If the local boards had the ability to take charge in the management of their coastal environments, their communities would have a greater ability to be involved.

Both the HGMPA (2000) and the Auckland Council structure, particularly the Waiheke Island Local Board could provide effective pathways to further encourage direct community involvement in coastal management issues that are unique to the Hauraki Gulf and Auckland areas respectively. However, further encouragement of community involvement is needed in the HGMPA (2000) and the local boards need the ability to govern not only issues, activities and facilities but their environments as well.

4.3 Results of interviews with Auckland Council and Waiheke Island Local Board members

This section summarises the key findings that resulted from the one-on-one interviews with Faye Storer, chair of the Waiheke Island Local Board and Kath Coombes, a principal specialist in the coastal environmental strategy and policy department of the Auckland Council. The interviews were based on the questions outlined in 3.3.4 of the methodology chapter, however much more information was gained as the conversation progressed. Analysis of the different perspectives from the Local Board member and the Councillor shows how effective the integration is within the Auckland Council.

4.3.1 Face-to-face interview with the Chair of the Waiheke Island Local Board

There were several objectives on my agenda when I decided to interview Faye Storer, chair of the Waiheke Island local board. The Local Board Plan (2011) hinted at community engagement as their values and issues were addressed within the document, so it was important to investigate this further and find out how and why the local board engaged with their community to the extent they did. I was also interested to gain the local board's perspective on the new Auckland 'Super City' council and uncover whether or not it was beneficial for the localised form of governance. It was also important to

find out whether it would be possible for the local board to act as a co-ordinator for a local community-based coastal management approach. Below are the summarised key points from the interview and prior email conversation.

Firstly, the local board developed a community engagement and communication strategy in which they state the following purposes for community engagement (Waiheke Local Board):

- To initiate a democratic process of engaging with people in informed discussions about shared goals and priorities;
- To seek the views of the community;
- That the community is satisfied they have had the opportunity to contribute; and
- That the Waiheke Local Board and the wider community develop a positive working relationship.

The Board created seven engagement opportunities (below) to help achieve the above purposes (Waiheke Local Board):

- 1) Community meetings regularly attended by Board members
- 2) Residents and ratepayers meetings
- 3) Community forums and portfolio sessions
- 4) Individual/group face to face meetings
- 5) Letters/faxes/emails/social media
- 6) Ostend Saturday Market
- 7) Listening Post

This variety of engagement allowed the board to reach out to many people and provided the information needed to develop the plan. Faye enjoyed the consultation process and would do it again. However, she mentioned several issues with the whole process: The community was not as well represented as expected, turnout consisted of the usual lobbyists, focus was on negative issues rather than being proactive and supporting interests, and many residents expect the board members to ‘just do their job’ thinking the process of electing the members instils a trust in them to make the right decisions.

On reflecting on the new Auckland Council, Faye mentioned that the newly formed Local Boards do have more power than their predecessor but their role is not currently as defined as it could be. The Super City regime is more integrated but she feels that councillors are still only worried about how their actions will be perceived in their own areas.

Faye believes it is possible for the Local Boards to play a pivotal role in co-ordinating and supporting community scale coastal management. However, she insisted that there would still be a

need for a hierarchical system that contained objectives that are common across the nation. So the need for national direction in the form of a coastal policy statement is still necessary. Furthermore, I asked about the Waiheke Island Local Board's relationship with the Hauraki Gulf Forum. She replied by saying that they are involved but the Forum is not good at implementation, but rather, spends most of their time deliberating.

4.3.2 Face-to-face interview with an Auckland Council member.

The interview with Kath Coombes, a principal specialist in the coastal environmental strategy and policy department of the Auckland Council, was designed to investigate how the Auckland Council worked particularly on the topic of coastal management. Given the relative infancy of the newly formed council, little information and no plans or policies are available for research. So it was pertinent to gather this insider perspective. Below is a summary of the interview that was based around the questions in section 3.3.4 of the methodology chapter but again, further insight eventuated throughout the conversation.

Initial interest queried whether or not there was a difference in the creation of regional and district level coastal policies and plans. Kath said that it is different and they are currently working on a unitary plan, a single document which encompasses the: coast, air, land, and water. Their primary goal was to: not have as many plans in different areas as to combine district level plans increasing consistency and equality across the region and cut conflict between regional and district/city councils. Within the unitary plan there will be both regional and district/city components and for topics such as the coast there will be local area plans (based around local board areas) that will eventually be introduced as variations within the unitary plan. This will result in greater integration between regional level and district/city levels on an issue or topic but still has problems, as Kath stated "it's such an opportunity for improving on issues, but it is an on-going process because at the same time we have become such a big organisation that it is really hard to find anyone or find whose specific role it is to do something."

The benefits of the amalgamation include: settling conflicts between regional level and district/city level interests internally, rather than through a court process. Local Boards also have greater power as the council system is non-hierarchical meaning they can make decisions and act on issues within their local board area without needing the permission of the central council. Conversely, issues arise due to the inherent complexity of such a large council operation and the time it now takes to produce document plans has increased. Kath also noted that it is now a lot harder to apply general policy approaches from the NZCPS (2010) and the RMA (1991) when dealing with site specific issues.

I asked whether community involvement is likely to be at a higher level than through existing submission processes and Kath mentioned that it is hard to tell at the moment as there are no statutory plans in effect yet. But she also stated that the great opportunity for community involvement is

through their local boards and subsequent local board plans, as the unitary plans are going off local board plans. They are also looking to approach ‘communities of interest’ when they have insufficient background information on specific topics i.e. Approaching a boat club about a mooring issue.

On a whole, both councillors I interviewed were optimistic about the new form of the Auckland Council, both admitted that inter-governmental integration was its defining function and both noted that local level councils in the form of the local boards were now better equipped and could govern their areas effectively. This in effect has shifted governance down the hierarchical ladder, and is theoretically a step closer to ‘bottom-up’ management practice. Both saw the valid opportunity for greater community involvement particularly through engagement with the local boards assisting in the production of the local board plans. However, it was also clear from the interviews that it is early days and all councillors are still coming to terms with how to approach management under the new regime and this does increase the length of time it will take for plans and policies to be constructed and placed into effect.

4.4 Results from community engagement

To obtain results from the Waiheke Island community, focus was placed on the community questionnaire, outlined in 3.3.3 of the methodology chapter. I presented my research aims to an audience at a Waiheke Island Rotary Club meeting on the 13th of February 2012. The meeting had approximately forty members in attendance, they were of varying ages and occupations but were all residents of Waiheke Island. I gave a brief presentation explaining my ambitions for the research and the practical matters of the questionnaire. I then handed out the questionnaire and answered questions. The mood of the audience was responsive and seemed to be interested in the intentions of the research. I received seven completed questionnaires the results of which will be summarised below into the separate questions.

Table 6 shows the summarised results of the first question of the questionnaire that asks for insight into their values, interests and issues perceived within their coastal environment.

Table 6 the summarised responses about values, interests and issues of Waiheke Island community. NB: * indicates element was mentioned more than once.

Values	Openness and recreation, public access*, Sensible low-impact development, sustainable use, clean water, the constant changing of the coast.
Interests	Fishing*, snorkelling, swimming, walking on the beaches and tracks*
Issues	Destruction of the coastal environment for economic benefit, Fishing quota issues (limits are too high, size limits too small and penalties are not severe enough), inappropriate development within the active coastal environment (on foreshore and sand dunes), need further conservation of coastland and waters.

When asked what their definition of the ‘coastal environment’ was, many (and most commonly) described it as a physical area spanning from ‘cliff tops,’ ‘beaches,’ ‘high tide mark’ to ‘shallow waters’, and ‘lowest astronomical tide’. Others mentioned it as an ‘interface where the land meets the sea’ and acknowledged it was both a physical area and a cultural area. Mention also described accounts of ‘openness,’ ‘freedom’ and ‘resources’. One also mentioned the ‘queens chain’ and ‘riparian rights’ if it was under a landowners control.

Almost half said they did not have any current direct involvement in coastal management. The answers proclaiming participation were varied and included: active obedience and teaching of fishing regulations, rubbish clean up, formal education on coastal matters and community board participation.

Most did not answer question four, which asked for their opinion on objective six. But there was sense of acknowledgement that there is an inherent compromising balance between the natural environment and community prosperity of all aspects (social, economic, cultural, health and safety). One mentioned that development and subdivision does not relate directly to the aspects above.

The general consensus on question five was that most were happy with the local board and what they do regardless of whether or not they were actively being given information. However, the greater Auckland council seems to be less trusted as local issues are unaccounted for.

Question six had a very low return, with one mention of submissions and resource consent processes and another mentioning the need for notification via letter or email about large issues that will greatly affect the community.

For question seven, most were in agreement that current management is adequate but many raised specific examples where management was failing for example: poor infrastructure leading to sewerage and storm runoff seeping into coastal environment, issues about the Auckland port reclamation project were mentioned and issues surrounding fish quotas and stock management. Others mentioned examples where the local board was excelling with respect to the creation of a coastal walkway and the maintenance of that.

The term ‘community’ was indicative of many things in the feedback received. Most related it to a physical definition of the people lining on Waiheke Island or within the Auckland region, other more abstract definitions included reference to commonality, ‘common ideas,’ ‘aspirations,’ and a ‘collective spirit.’

The key findings on question nine relate to two things: awareness and acknowledgement. There was a definite notion of the need to create more awareness within the community about coastal values and issues. The community also needs to be acknowledged and approached by the local board about

coastal management intent and practice, further avenues are necessary to provide this opportunity. As one respondent stated “Our voice has to be acknowledged and incorporated into plans”.

5.0 Results: Kaikoura case study.

This chapter will largely follow the structure of the previous chapter on the results of the Waiheke Island case study. It firstly sets up the context of the physical coastal environment of Kaikoura, the community characteristics and some examples of the most prominent uses of the coastal environment. Secondly, the key coastal management practices are outlined which includes the example of Te Korowai o Te Tai o Marokura, a community group in Kaikoura that are proactively seeking involvement in the management of the Kaikoura coastal environment. Lastly, the results gained through interviews with council members and the community feedback from the focus groups and questionnaire are outlined.

5.1 Context

As with the Waiheke Island case study, it is vital to understand the contextual characteristics of the Kaikoura case study to situate the results and provide possible reasons for the variables encountered in the primary feedback of the community and their councillors. Here it will be broken down into three sub-sections focussing on: the physical coastal environment, the community characteristics, and the prominent uses of their coastal environment.

5.1.1 Kaikoura environmental setting

Figure 5.1 shows the extent of the Kaikoura territory, most notably confined by the Clarence River (to the North) and the Haumuri Bluffs (to the South) with the inland barrier being the Kaikoura Range which is part of the Southern Alps. It covers a land area of approximately 2,048 square kilometres (Kaikoura District Council, 2011). The coastal environment has several unique features including the underwater Kaikoura Canyon that reaches depths of 1,300 metres and is the source of an abundant and diverse marine ecosystem (De Leo *et al.*, 2010; Kaikoura District Council, 2011). Coastal landforms include the prominent Kaikoura Peninsula and its shore platforms that consist of limestone and mudstone, these are surrounded by mixed sand and gravel beaches (Kirk, 1980; Stephenson and Kirk, 2000). Below are images that illustrate the coastal landforms present and the situated location of the Kaikoura Township.



Figure 13 Kaikoura area map showing the boundaries of the Clarence River and the Haumuri Bluffs (Source: TopoMap)



Figure 14 On top of Kaikoura Peninsula looking south towards South Bay (Source: Author)



Figure 15 Mixed sand and gravel beach of South Bay looking south (Source: Author)



Figure 16 Kaikoura Peninsula, showing shore platforms (Source: Author)



Figure 17 The Kaikoura Township perched on the northern face of the Kaikoura Peninsula (Source: Author)



Figure 18 South of Kaikoura, showing State Highway 1 is within coastal environment looking south. Showing a further use of the coastal environment (Source: Author)

5.2.2 Kaikoura community characteristics

This section will briefly describe some aspects of the Kaikoura community including population size, ethnic make-up, and main sources of income to help illustrate the community's situation and provide a basis to extrude reasons for current values, issues or conflict with respect to their coastal environment. Secondly, important recent events that have shaped Kaikoura's image and current function will be described.

There are 3,621 residents in the Kaikoura District and it is the second smallest district in the country (Statistics New Zealand, 2006). The unemployment rate is only 2.3% in the Kaikoura District compared to 5.1% for all of New Zealand, although the recent global recession may have altered this data (Statistics New Zealand, 2006). An important community characteristic in comparison with the Waiheke Island case study is ethnic diversity. Kaikoura has a European representation of 77.1%; this is higher than the New Zealand average of 67.6% but still lower than Waiheke Island's 82%. An interesting statistic is Kaikoura's Maori representation, which is 17.1%. This is higher than the national average of 14.6% and much higher than that of Waiheke Island which is only 12.3%. This greater than average Maori representation should be represented in the coastal management of the Kaikoura area (this will be elaborated on further in the discussion chapter) (Statistics New Zealand, 2006).

Early Maori were attracted to the Kaikoura District because its rich fishing grounds and useful bush provided the resources necessary for comfortable living. These assets made Kaikoura the most densely populated region of Maori within the South Island (Sherrard, 1966). The affinity Kaikoura has had for the Maori of the South Island particularly Ngai Tahu has continued to this day. As Ngai Tahu consider it to be a critical place within their territory and are significant business drivers.

Similarly early European settlement within the region was prompted by the area's wealth of resources. Permanent shore-based whaling commenced in the 1840's, with sheep farming on the flat land between the coast and the Seaward Kaikoura Ranges following shortly after (Sherrard, 1966).

The Kaikoura coastline has been the prominent environment with respect to use and the economy within the region. Fishing featured prominently for subsistence from the initial contact of Maori 800 – 1000 years ago and European settlers in the early 1800's. In the twentieth century resource use in the Kaikoura coastal environment was commercially focussed with: a crayfish industry set up in the 1940's, paua fishing in the 1950's and charter fishing followed in the 1980's. These extractive activities continue however, tourism based ventures in the late twentieth century are also prominent. Swimming with seals began in 1987, with whale and dolphin watching starting the next year, finally aerial whale watching began in 1991 (Te Korowai o Te Tai o Marokura, 2008)

“Until the late 1980s Kaikoura was a sleepy fishing village of around 2,000 inhabitants, where the only attractions were locally caught lobsters, a little known seal colony, and a series of rusting relics from the whaling era” (Cloke and Perkins, 2005: 908). Concerned with high levels of unemployment, Ngai Tahu started the tourism venture Whale Watch (Cloke and Perkins, 2005). Today, the region’s primary function is most certainly centred on ecotourism “based on the plentiful supply of cetaceans in nearby waters” (Cloke and Perkins, 2005: 908). Kaikoura lays claim to being one of the most celebrated ecotourism hotspots in the world experiencing 1.5 million tourists per annum (Grzelewski, 2002).

5.1.3 Uses of the coastal environment in Kaikoura

As the previous section alluded to, Kaikoura’s historical existence relied heavily on resource use in the coastal environment and so too does much of its present activity. Ecotourism of whale watching has replaced the blast of harpoons with the click of cameras (Grzelewski, 2002). But several factors attributed to the tourism venture have led to many negative impacts on the residents. These include: the rapid pace of tourism development, the high level of tourist visibility, the perceived inability of the local council’s ability to react, and the perceived low level of control (Horn and Simmons, 2002).

Furthermore competition for coastal resources between Cetacean ecotourism with commercial and recreational fishing is a cause of conflict that requires the attention of localised coastal management. “In Kaikoura, many local people are aware that the marine mammals on which the tourism industry relies are likely to be sensitive to disturbance or environmental degradation” (Horn and Simmons, 2002). The issue here is to maintain the ‘productive capacity’ of the area, to support the abundance of wildlife, fish and marine mammals. This includes managing fish stocks that are vital food sources for these animals (Te Korowai o Te Tai o Marokura, 2011). Absolute use and dominance of either sector: ecotourism or fisheries, could lead to the demise of the other. Therefore, if Kaikoura is to maintain a flourishing tourism venture based on marine mammals alongside a viable fishing industry, both will need appropriate management and should ultimately be considered together.

5.2 Current coastal management practice in Kaikoura

Kaikoura is under the jurisdiction of Environment Canterbury; this section illustrates the current Regional Coastal Plan prepared by Environment Canterbury and exemplifies the relevancies for the Kaikoura area. Te Korowai o Te Tai o Marokura (Te Korowai), are a community group in Kaikoura that are proactively seeking involvement in the management of the Kaikoura coastal environment. This provides an example of a community-based approach to coastal management. Furthermore, the Maori prominence within the Kaikoura area has led to customary management practices – these are also described within the Te Korowai section as these practices are being utilised by Te Korowai.

5.2.1 Environment Canterbury coastal initiatives.

Environment Canterbury has an operative Regional Coastal Environment Plan (2005). Within it, it mentions a description of the Kaikoura area and a list of relevant coastal issues:

- Threats from tourism and fishing and other activities on Tangata Whenua values including water quality issues impacting on kai-moana.
- Maintenance of vulnerable sections of the railway and highway adjacent to the sea.
- Providing for tourism, fishing and other activities on the narrow coastal margins while maintaining the high natural character of the area.

(Environment Canterbury, 2005: 3-14)

The Regional Coastal Environment Plan (2005) also mentions a statutory acknowledgement of Ngai Tahu and their association with Te Tai o Marokura (Kaikoura coastal marine area). This plan provides little explicit detail for the coastal management of the Kaikoura coastal environment. It also pre-dates the current NZCPS (2010) and therefore would largely not ‘give effect’ to it.

Current efforts by Environment Canterbury include the construction of a coastal strategy which will involve defining coastal environment and the values, issues and outcomes for local areas with the aid of any communities that want to be involved (this is elaborated on further in 5.3).

5.2.2 Te Korowai o Te Tai o Marokura: A community led coastal management initiative

Within Kaikoura the community group Te Korowai is proactively seeking a leadership role in the coastal management of the Kaikoura coastal environment. Their work is of particular importance to this thesis as they are an example of a community led coastal management initiative. This section illustrates who is involved, what their ambitions are and the methods they are employing to achieve those goals. Their work could be adapted by other coastal communities around New Zealand.

Te Korowai: who they are and their goals

Te Korowai is a group that is a collective of many stakeholders that have an interest in the Kaikoura coastal environment including: The Kaikoura Runanga, recreational fishers, commercial fishers, tourism operators, and the greater Ngai Tahu Runanga. These groups represent the inner circle stakeholders or the ‘yolk’ in their egg model, the ‘egg white’ represent affiliated groups that are also interested, they include: Environment Canterbury, the Department of Conservation, the Kaikoura District Council and independent advisors and facilitators.

Their formal vision is (in both English and Maori):

By perpetuating the mauri and wairua of 'Te Tai o Marokura', we as kaitiaki of Tangaroa's taonga are leading the community to achieve a flourishing, rich and healthy environment, where opportunities abound to sustain the needs of present and future generations.

Ma te whakapumau I te mauri me te wairua o, 'Te Tai o Marokura', ko matou nga kaitiaki o nga taonga a Tangaroa kei te arataki i te iwi hapouri, ki te whakangaruru i te momona me te wairoa o te ahuatanga o te Taiao, mo nga whakatipuranga o aiane me ake tonu ake.

(Te Korowai o Te Tai o Marokura, 2011: 12)

Te Korowai: Methods employed

With their vision, they expect four outcomes: Fishing for abundance, protecting their treasures, living sustainably, and sustaining customary practices. So far they have created two important documents, their first was the '*Kaikoura Coastal Marine Values and Uses: A characterisation report (2008)*' in which they identified their vision, the physical boundaries of the area in question and the values and uses they wish to protect and maintain within the Kaikoura coastal environment. It also provides a qualitative description of the current uses such as fish stocks and catch data. The second document was the '*Te Korowai o Te Tai o Marokura Strategy*' with outlines the methods for achieving their four outcomes (mentioned above) and also describes how the document could be implemented as a coastal plan document for the area. This strategy has been released to the residents of Kaikoura in the hope of receiving submissions before they create the final strategy. Te Korowai envisages two pathways for the strategy once completed. The first, is to have the strategy accepted into the Regional Coastal Strategy and would effectively act as a localised amendment. The second pathway is for the strategy to gain special legislation status. This is done through central government (DOC) acknowledging that Te Korowai has undertaken a robust enough consultative process and promote their efforts to statutory status. Both these options are a few years off and will still need considerable work by Te Korowai.

Maori coastal management initiatives Te Korowai are implementing

Amendments to the Fisheries Act (1996) "provide a process for tangata whenua to appoint tangata tiaki/kaitiaki (customary fisheries managers) to manage customary food gathering (by issuing fishing authorisations) and provide a framework for tangata whenua to contribute to fisheries management" (Te Korowai o Te Tai o Marokura, 2011: 96). Within their authorisations they can allocate areas for mataitai, taiapure or rahui which are:

- Mataitai: A mataitai reserve identifies a customary food-gathering site and allows for its management by tangata whenua

- Taiapure: A taiapure identifies an area (of estuarine or coastal areas) that has special significance to an iwi or hapu as a source of food or for spiritual or cultural reasons.
- Rahui: areas temporarily closed to fishing for customary reasons. These can be traditional, having no legal but a strong moral basis, or may be recognised under the Fisheries Act S186B or S297

(Te Korowai o Te Tai o Marokura, 2011: 118-119)

In the Kaikoura area, a rahui was on the Waiopuka reef (figure 13) in August 2002 “on the grounds of pressure from recreational, commercial and customary harvesters was depleting fish stocks. This rahui has been renewed three times and will remain in place until 17 August 2012” (Te Korowai o Te Tai o Marokura, 2011). There are no current mataitai or taiapure, but to implement their outcome of sustaining customary practices; Te Korowai wish to place three mataitai at Mussel rock, Mangamaunu, and Oaro (figure 13) (Te Korowai o Te Tai o Marokura, 2011).

Current attempts by the regional council to construct a coastal strategy and the traditional knowledge used to implement customary management practice on fisheries provide promising examples for effective coastal management within the Kaikoura area. If Te Korowai and Environment Canterbury can effectively deliver a non-statutory local area strategy the community’s values, issues and desired outcomes could be well catered for.

Problems and transferability

Through observations and direct conversation with members of Te Korowai at Te Korowai meetings it was clear that there were several on-going issues that slow proceedings. Te Korowai is a group that can only now confidently and proudly say that they have a holistic approach to their coastal efforts and that they accurately represent the wider Kaikoura community. It has taken them five years to work in a manner that respects (and effectively accounts for) all perspectives and provides the opportunity for all to be heard. The other issue is that of financial support. Most members are residents that volunteer all their expenses are reliant on financial assistance from external agencies such as: Environment Canterbury and the Kaikoura District Council.

Te Korowai is a leading example of a proactive community that aspires to be intimately involved in the management of their coastal environment. The local iwi has played an important role in establishing the group and continues to influence the group’s vision and pathway. This involvement has been important in their current success due to statutory requirements of the RMA (1991) and of the NZCPS (2010) to respect and involve iwi in coastal management. Another important factor in the group’s success is their coastal environment. Kaikoura is an area of exceptional quality and has the

scope to become an area of national significance. These factors make for unique characteristics therefore the application of their approach may not be readily available for other coastal communities.

5.3 Results of interviews with Regional and district council members

An email was sent to the mailing list Te Korowai gave me access to, to advertise my focus group. I received a reply from Winston Gray, Mayor of Kaikoura. He expressed his condolences about not being able to make the focus group appointment. Given his reply expressed a certain desire to be involved, an email was sent to him to enquire about the Kaikoura District Council's role in coastal management. However, no reply was received. So this section will focus solely on the insight gained by speaking with the Principal Planner (Coastal) for Environment Canterbury, David Gregory. The main interview (outlined in 3.3.4 of the methodology chapter) focussed on his perceptions of the new NZCPS (2010) elaborating on objective 6 and an inquisition into the relationship Environment Canterbury has with Kaikoura and the community group: Te Korowai o Te Tai o Marokura with respect to coastal management.

5.3.1 Face-to-face interview with the Environment Canterbury Senior Coastal Planner.

David Gregory (Senior Coastal Planner for Environment Canterbury) reflected on the transition between the original NZCPS (1994), which he mentioned was weaker and open to debate. He noted the new NZCPS (2010) is more directive in the sense that, the policies provide enough of a description allowing for regional councils to 'give effect'. With respect to the NZCPS (2010) promoting the involvement of communities in coastal management, he mentioned that this is possible but it is up to the attitudes of the planners and the issues the communities in question have. Furthermore, if the regional council is serious about integration then communities need to be included and the councils need to go beyond the statutory requirements, which is what Environment Canterbury are trying to achieve with their coastal strategy. The coastal strategy will allow for communities to define their coastal environment with the regional council and highlight the values and issues present as well as the outcomes they wish to see in their coastal environments.

5.3.2 Regional council thoughts on the relationship with Te Korowai community group

Te Korowai's proactive approach has provided them with the opportunity to develop their strategy which could become part of the regional coastal strategy. David described several instances of the relationship they have with Te Korowai and how they were able to provide services, these included:

- Initial contact via Environment Canterbury's community liaison team who passed them on to the planners who;
 - Facilitated Te Korowai's meetings to increase the efficacy of their efforts, and allow the different perceptions to be told;
- Funding assistance; and

- Staff time was provided to help with their strategy and clarify much of it.

David mentioned that Te Korowai is an exceptionally unique group within the region in terms of their proactivity, their cohesion and direction. This kind of community group is an excellent way for regional councils to work with community but he stated that “you have to be sure that the group is a fair representative of the entire community, for this to work.”

5.4 Results from community engagement

The initial attempt at community engagement in Kaikoura consisted of a focus group held at the Edward Percival Field Station on the 28th of January 2012 at 10.30am, an invitation was sent out via an emailing list of forty-seven Kaikoura residents held by the local community group Te Korowai. Turnout was low with only one resident showing up. With only one participant I was unable to run a successful focus group which was designed to develop insight through the interaction of more than one community member. Given this failed attempt, focus then turned to the questionnaire which was sent through the same emailing list and was promoted in the Kaikoura Star (a local Kaikoura newspaper). Again feedback was low with only three questionnaires filled out. The possible low turnout could be because the primary advertising was through a pre-existing community group, membership to this group could be perceived as a more likely avenue to express their concerns. This section will summarise the feedback gathered from these three questionnaires (Table 7).

Table 7 Summarised results of questionnaire given to Kaikoura residents

Question 1: Personal values, interests and issues	Question 2: Personal definition of the ‘coastal environment’	Question 3: Extent of current and future involvement in coastal management
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public access • Seafood gathering • Fishing • High ecosystem quality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All marine processes out to the 12 nautical mile limit • A place where all New Zealanders are stakeholders • A place where the land and the ocean meet and where processes of one affect the other 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being aware of current and historic issues • Take an interest in any development that may be detrimental to the environment • Involvement in Te Korowai community group
Question 4: Opinion of objective 6 of the NZCPS (2010)	Question 5: Relationship with local and regional councils	Question 6: How is information shared

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oddly worded • Clear agenda on development • Would not like to see development that would exclude public access 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • None – we don't have a democratically elected regional council and local council is struggling with all issues not just coastal ones 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Through Te Korowai community group
Question 7: Viewpoint on current management schemes	Question 8: Definition of 'community'	Question 9: What role should the community play in coastal management
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local management is inadequate – rely too much on other Government agencies to manage issues • Not currently adequate – hence Te Korowai community group 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The entire globe • People who have resided in the area for a considerable amount of time and have ownership and responsibility for land and infrastructure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collective viewpoint needs to be regarded • Community needs to be more respectful and appreciate ecosystem dynamics

6.0 Discussion

The discussion chapter consists of three parts: Firstly, the results of the two case studies are summarised and compared which highlights the need to further promote community involvement in coastal management within New Zealand. Secondly, the options illustrating possible ‘pathways’ for further community involvement are outlined, with the final product being to amend the current NZCPS (2010) to mobilise the preferred pathway. These changes acknowledge the need for New Zealand to incorporate higher levels of community involvement into coastal management as it has become an increasingly popular area for reform internationally. Thirdly, a reflection revisits the initial research questions described in chapter 1. Furthermore, the methodology employed for the case study research is reviewed, stating the possible reasons why an already proven method did not work as well in this context.

6.1 Analysis of results

The two case study areas of Waiheke Island and Kaikoura were designed to provide comparative analysis to demonstrate that coastal management is subject to interpretation and spatial context. This section summarises the key findings of both case study areas and compares the results to identify similarities and differences between the two different spatial settings. This allows for reflection on current coastal management efforts in the case study areas to see whether the community feedback is matched by the decision-makers’ intentions.

6.1.1 Summary of Waiheke Island and Kaikoura case study results

Each case study area is briefly summarised here by describing the key findings in each relating to: their contextual background, examples of coastal uses that have caused a need for management intervention, current management practice, and the results from the community feedback.

Waiheke Island has a varied coastal environment that includes: rocky headlands and cliffs, long golden sand beaches, gravel beaches and tidal mudflat areas. This variety creates stunning coastal landscapes which play a prominent role in the Island’s portrayal. The variety of coastal environments also offers settings for many different uses and subsequent values including recreational uses such as: fishing, swimming, walking, and sailing; economic uses such as aquaculture, and chartered fishing; and infrastructural uses such as; the ferry transportation service.

Although Waiheke Island has a small resident population, in the popular summer months the population can quadruple in size due to visitor numbers. An important driving factor for this is the Island’s proximity to Auckland it is 17km from the CBD and is a 35 minute trip on the commuter ferries. This mobility link with the city complicates a typically easily definable island community. The result is that, a third of the island’s workforce commute to Auckland City and many residences on

the island are owned by people on the mainland – leading to the stigmatisation of Waiheke Island being dubbed as a playground for Auckland’s wealthy and elite. This has created a divide within the Waiheke Island community where the remote laidback lifestyle cherished by the long-standing residents is in conflict with the desire of newer residents that demand a higher level of development.

Waiheke Island’s primary economic function is based in tourism. The coastal environment is an important backdrop for this, but it is also driven by a high concentration of exclusive vineyards and olive groves. The resultant workforce resides mostly in accommodation, retail and restaurant sectors. Another important characteristic of the community composition is the island’s ethnic make-up. It has a high European representation (14.4% higher than the national average) and a low Maori representation (2.3% less than the national average).

Two uses that are central to contest within the Waiheke Island community were exemplified in the case chapter. Coastal property development has recently boomed on Waiheke Island, these properties are marketed to, and are only attainable by the very wealthy. This has caused the long-standing local residents to be priced out of their own housing market this is an issue for property economics. Another issue that has arisen from this development is the privatisation of the coastal environment, decreasing the ability of the public to access the coast. Many private properties encapsulate entire bays or beaches excluding coastal access via the land to the public. The other use mentioned was the proposal for a marina development within Matiatia Bay. This bay is already subject to infrastructure development in the form of the ferry terminal. It appears as though this would be an ideal location for such a development as it keeps other developments out of more undeveloped bays. But there is still resistance from some long-standing residents who believe this type of development ‘Aucklandises’ Waiheke Island. The juxtaposition apparent within the community, suggests that community resilience is low. To increase the efficiency of management practice, efforts must focus on resolving this conflict to build their adaptive capacity. Developing stronger community resilience will lessen conflict with respect to specific development proposals or other issues.

Waiheke Island comes under two important approaches to coastal management. The first is the HGMPA (2000) which acts as an area specific national policy statement, where the details can be more specific and tailored to the local environment. It realises the importance of the Hauraki Gulf as a place for economic, historical, cultural and recreational activities and places more emphasis on these activities than the NZCPS (2010) which is functionally conservational. The second approach is the governance of the new Auckland ‘Super City’ which amalgamates regional and district/city functions. As a result local boards (which are heavily linked to their communities) have more authority than previous approaches to governance. The two approaches offer the ability to integrate communities into coastal management, but through interviews with councillors it was clear that the HGMPA (2000)

is still not performing as best as it could and that the practice under the new Auckland Council is still in its infancy and it will take time to see results.

The community feedback on their perception of values, interests, issues and their definition of their coastal environment were precise. The construction of their answers suggested that many were aware of current issues and of the management practice involved. Most feedback was positive about their relationships with their local board but less happy with the greater council's involvement and regional level decisions. Feedback on objective six of the NZCPS (2010) was particularly absent.

Kaikoura has several unique coastal features that play a pivotal role in the community's function. The underwater Kaikoura Canyon is the source of the abundant and diverse marine life in Kaikoura. Other coastal landforms include the Kaikoura Peninsula and its shore platforms and the mixed sand and gravel beaches that flank the peninsula. Although Kaikoura resides on the mainland of the South Island the Seaward Kaikoura ranges isolate the community from other urban areas. This makes it relatively easy to define geographical parameters for the community.

Kaikoura has a rich history and has been an important location for resource use by both Maori and European peoples. Today, Kaikoura has a Maori population that is 2.5% higher than the national average. There is a lower than average unemployment rate and this is largely attributed to the initiatives launched by Ngai Tahu to encourage cetacean based ecotourism in the area. This tourism sees Kaikoura experience 1.5 million visitors per annum.

Although the ecotourism is promoted as a sustainable venture, several factors of its growth have impacted the local residents in a negative manner, these include: the rapid pace of the tourism development, the high level of tourist visibility, the perceived inability of the local council to react, and the perceived low level of control. Furthermore, resource competition is present between the tourism venture and the commercial and recreational fishery in the area. The fish stocks provide the catch for the fisherman and the food supply for the whales, dolphins and seals which are at the heart of the tourism venture. Appropriate management needs to include both activities holistically if both are to flourish in the area. However, fishing practices are governed by laws that are separate from the management of the rest of the coastal environment.

The results chapter identified two important coastal management approaches that have (or could have) significant effects within the Kaikoura coastal environment. The first is Environment Canterbury's decision to develop a Coastal Strategy that will accurately define the coastal environments within the region and identify values, issues and desired outcomes that are present within those coastal environments. Environment Canterbury is endeavouring to work with local communities that are willing to be involved in this process. However the result of this is yet to be seen as the work is in its early phases. The second coastal management influence is local iwi, who have

statutory acknowledgement of being guardians of the coastal environment in Kaikoura out to the 12 nautical mile limit. There is a current rahui (temporary fishing ban) on the Waiopuka reef on the Kaikoura peninsula on the grounds of pressure from recreational, commercial and customary harvesters. The community group, Te Korowai wish to place three mataitai (site for customary food gathering and management) at selected areas within the Kaikoura coastal environments. These efforts are encouraging examples of more localised coastal management practice within the Kaikoura coastal environment.

Feedback from the community on the questionnaire was low, but the information that was received was of a high quality and reflected the coastal knowledge that is present throughout the documents created by Te Korowai as my inquiry was through the pre-existing networks of Te Korowai. The values, issues and interests section and the coastal environment definition section were answered well but their perception of current management practice and their relationships with the decision-makers were relatively low.

Te Korowai is a community group within Kaikoura and their aim is to improve and sustain the many qualities of the Kaikoura coastal environment. Their holistic approach is reflected by their multi-stakeholder membership composition which includes representatives from: The Kaikoura runanga, recreational and commercial fishers, tourism operators, and Regional and District council members. Te Korowai has developed a strategy and envisages two pathways for its implementation: acceptance into the regional coastal strategy, or, gain special legislation status to promote it to a statutory document. Te Korowai's proactivity, cohesion and direction are attributes that this thesis sought as an example to promote the idea of community led initiatives in New Zealand coastal management.

6.1.2 Comparative analysis of Waiheke Island and Kaikoura case studies

This section compares the two case studies by looking at their contextual characteristics, coastal management practice examples and their community feedback results. This section suggests reasons for the similarities and differences that occur and identify practices present in one that may benefit the other.

Table 8 illustrates similarities and differences between the two case study areas when analysing: key contextual characteristics, key activity issues and key management practices. Waiheke Island and Kaikoura are both reasonably isolated and identifiable communities, which is important to quantify if community-based management is to persist. They are also both linked with a tourism based economy.

However, the differences are numerous, particularly with the issues the areas face and the current pathways available to help deal with them. The issues on Waiheke Island are development issues that illustrate the divide within the community; there is a rift between those that enjoy their distinctive

lifestyle that separates them from the culture of mainland Auckland, and the others (predominantly the wealthy Aucklanders that reside on Waiheke Island) that demand the trappings of modern society. This is a contest of culture whereas in Kaikoura, the issue is from direct competition of resources between stakeholders. There is evidence of differences in coastal management approaches as well. Kaikoura resides in a traditional hierarchical system of governance, while that hierarchy has been dissolved in the case of Waiheke Island. The Maori management practice is also a key difference between the two and given the difference in Maori population between the two case study areas, this seems appropriately represented. With respect to Kaikoura, Maori representation is vital to maintain its cultural wellbeing (hence the special recognition of Ngai Tahu as kaitiaki in Kaikoura), whereas on Waiheke Island (although it should be important to acknowledge Maori rights in the coastal environment nationwide) it is not as important so general statutory acknowledgement should suffice here.

Table 8 Comparative analysis of case study areas

	Waiheke Island	Kaikoura
Key contextual elements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Island setting, various coastal environments • Proximity to major city, located in nationally significant Hauraki Gulf • Proportionately low Maori population • Tourism sector drives local economy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mainland residence, but isolated by geographical features • Proportionately high Maori population • Tourism sector drives local economy
Key coastal management issues	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subdivision development quelling public access to the coast • Infrastructure development ‘Aucklandises’ the island 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resource competition between Marine based tourism and recreational and commercial fishing
Key coastal management practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HGMPA (2000) locally focussed national policy statement, takes holistic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Environment Canterbury is developing coastal

	<p>approach to marine use.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Auckland council manages regional and local level decisions. Local boards deal directly with the community 	<p>strategy to include defined coastal environments and associated values and issues.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maori statutory presence, manages customary fishing practice
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The most obvious way in which coastal management practice in one area could benefit the efforts of the other would be: acknowledging Kaikoura as a nationally significant coastal environment, much like, that of the Hauraki Gulf. Kaikoura has such unique coastal qualities that they should be recognised in this form. If Kaikoura was to have this status and could develop a locally based national policy statement, like the HGMPA (2000) fisheries could be included into a holistic plan resolving their resource use issues.

Table 9 Comparative chart of community feedback

	Waiheke Island community feedback	Kaikoura community feedback
Values, interests, issues	Public access, low impact development, recreation, environment quality	Public access, seafood gathering, fishing, high ecosystem quality
Coastal environment definition	Physical, cultural, and legal descriptions	Physical, legal, and process descriptions
Definition of community	Reference to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Residence • Commonality in ideas, aspirations 	Reference to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Residence • Global community
Relationship with decision-makers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High with local board • Low with Greater Auckland council 	None, hence the need to initiate community group
Desire to be involved	Low level of direct involvement	High – through community group
Understanding of Objective six of the NZCPS (2010)	Low understanding of implications	Low understanding of implications

Table 9 compares the results gathered from the questionnaire that was distributed in both case study areas. The table shows that both areas have similar coastal values, they also have similar ideas about the coastal environment and were both unfamiliar with objective six of the NZCPS (2010). They had different perception on their relationship which strongly influenced their involvement in coastal management. Kaikoura residents were unhappy with current management, so became involved, whereas, Waiheke Island residents felt the opposite.

6.1.3 Does current coastal management practice reflect the voices/interests of the community?

There is no formal mention within statutory processes regarding coastal management outside general submission processes under the RMA (1991) on specific developments. Therefore, current coastal management does not promote active involvement from coastal communities. The results of this study show evidence that suggest some coastal communities are interested in becoming involved, Te Korowai in Kaikoura being one of them. But this desire to become involved is limited by this lack of statutory mention allowing for active involvement.

Within the two case study areas there is evidence of decision-makers attempting to include and promote community involvement in coastal management, namely: the coastal strategy being developed by Environment Canterbury and the community engagement process initiated by the local boards of the Auckland Council. However, the local board engagement is about all issues and is particularly focussed on the provision and maintenance of local infrastructure so coastal issues are not the focus and would still have to be acknowledged in the Auckland Unitary Plan which could prove difficult. Furthermore, the efforts of Environment Canterbury to include communities in the coastal strategy are through non-statutory processes. This extra effort to include communities is encouraging but would not be uniform around the country. Therefore, there is a real need for community involvement to be recognised.

The differences between the two case study areas ascertained by the research indicate the need for localised coastal management. However, it seems as though the values perceived in both case study areas reflected the nationwide affinity New Zealanders have with the coast mentioned in the ‘beach culture’ section in chapter 2. Therefore, it is important then to persevere with national objectives set out in the NZCPS (2010) but tailor the implementation to local coastal environments to ensure the localised issues are mitigated.

6.2 Promoting further community involvement

The combined information gained from the literature and the results of the case studies indicates that there is a real need to provide pathways that promote further community involvement. This section discusses: problems with the current NZCPS (2010) with respect to its ability to execute

effective community involvement, summarises why community involvement is beneficial, exemplifies a current pathway for community involvement, and finally, suggests some improvements to the current coastal management approach to promote further community involvement.

6.2.1 Inability of the NZCPS (2010) to promote effective community involvement.

A reflection on the discussions with community members, and decision-makers at various governance levels and the use of literature throughout this thesis, have produced several issues about the NZCPS (2010) that hinder its overall effectiveness as the primary document for coastal management. Objective six contains the single mention of ‘enabling communities’ within the NZCPS (2010) but in its creation the intention was not to promote community involvement. The real reason behind objective six and its subsequent issues as a tool to promote community involvement are ascertained here. Suggesting further action is needed within the NZCPS (2010) to acknowledge and promote community involvement in coastal management to ensure the NZCPS (2010) can succeed.

It has been noted that the NZCPS (2010) is more directive than its predecessor NZCPS (1994) restricting the ability to debate its direction, allowing regional councils to more readily ‘give effect’ to it through clear regional plans and policies. However, there are two issues with the positioning of the NZCPS (2010) within New Zealand statutory law that conflict with its purpose and with the reality of the coastal environment.

Firstly, the coastal environment has special significance under the RMA (1991), hence the requirement for a NZCPS. Its purpose is to state policies to achieve the purpose of the RMA (1991) within the coastal environment. The RMA (1991) was set up to regulate use of natural and physical resources but relies on the market to decide and appropriate their use (Makgill and Rennie, 2012). This implies an emphasis on economic worth and that resources and their use are based on ownership. However, the coastal environment differs biophysically and culturally when compared to terra firma (Thompson, 2007). Typically, coastal resources are common property resources (owned by all) where individual activity connotes occupation rather than ownership. Alongside this, New Zealanders expect freedom of access to the coast as if it were a birthright (Rennie, 2000). This contrasts with concepts of terrestrial based ownership. The subsequent resource management that places onus on ownership is inappropriate in the coastal environment. For this reason, a more holistic approach is necessary to acknowledge all physical factors and human interests.

Secondly, the NZCPS’ are constructed by the Department of Conservation. This inherently subjects the coastal environment to notions of protection, conservation and enhancement. These elements are important, as human activity is placing pressure on the coastal environment. For example, the subdivision and development evident on Waiheke Island and the competing use of fish stocks in Kaikoura. However, protection, conservation and enhancement are only part of the picture as it is

pertinent for coastal management efforts to wholly acknowledge and cater for: the significance of the coastal environment for humans. Full recognition of social, economic, cultural and historical aspects of local coastal environments need to be accounted for and the mention of these aspects is under-represented in the NZCPS (2010).

A reflection on objective six of the NZCPS (2010) is important in the discussion of community involvement as it is currently the only objective that mentions ‘enabling communities’. The interview with Graeme Speden, Senior Policy Analyst for the Department of Conservation was designed to understand the background and reasoning involved in its development. He mentioned that the inclusion of objective six was to remedy the appearance of the entire document being ‘too green’ or too focussed on conservation (hence the inclusion of subdivision, use and development) not to directly ‘enable communities’. The lumping of ‘people and communities’ with ‘subdivision, use and development’ imply coastal communities thrive on subdivision, use and development. This is an issue that is far from the truth as was the case found on Waiheke Island. There, the investigation into individual coastal values provided two mentions of ‘subdivision, use, and development’ and they were “Sensible low-impact development” and “Sustainable use” – hardly a response that would be ‘un-greening’ and goes to show that most coastal communities do not perceive ‘subdivision, use and development’ to be the intended outcome of their values.

The current lack of explicit mention allowing for the inclusion of in-depth community involvement suggests the need for further acknowledgement of community involvement. Makgill and Rennie (2012) identify that public participation is fundamental to the RMA (1991) and was instrumental in the creation of the NZCPS (1994) document and the NZCPS (2010). However, public or community involvement in the development of national policies and through submission processes is unlikely to ensure their place-specific values or concerns are appropriately integrated into coastal management. Furthermore, the inequalities related to power and finances that communities face dis-empower their efforts. This was evident in the Rakaia Huts example in my honours project (Stenson, 2010), and was also true for Te Korowai even though they are very proactive. Although public involvement is crucial for developing national objectives, pathways are needed within national frameworks that promote community-based input for place-specific management. To ensure the success of such pathways, emphasis on nullifying the current inequalities communities face is needed.

6.2.2 Why communities should be involved in coastal management.

This section reiterates why community involvement can improve the efficacy of coastal management by acknowledging the ability of communities to act as the link between management institutions and the coastal environment, not only because of their situated presence but for their local knowledge. Furthermore, their values, issues and perceived outcomes should be the basis for any management practice to reduce user conflict.

Coastal management should focus on the ‘human element’ as we know more about our own actions and values than we do about the dynamic biophysical processes that occur within the coastal environment. Managing human activity is certainly the most appropriate approach rather than trying to manipulate the natural systems. This approach supports the notion of focussing on local coastal communities as they are the receptors of the immediate benefits and challenges of their coastal environment and of management efforts (Kearney *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, sustainable management that balances all values and uses within the community is a plausible direction for effective coastal management.

If coastal management is to focus on coastal communities, it should go further than acknowledging their physical presence. To wholly understand the values, issues and uses in question, the community must be engaged. To acknowledge this, is to value local knowledge as a reputable form of information. To re-iterate, local knowledge with respect to local communities and their local coastal environment possesses the ability to understand a dynamic set of processes (human and natural) in a locally specific but holistic manner. The inherent emotion local knowledge imbues, unites social and cultural aspects with physical understanding. Capitalising on this knowledge before scientific inquisition avoids redundancy (Christie and White, 1997).

Integration is a prominent phrase in coastal management and the NZCPS (2010) expresses the need to provide for integration. The involvement of communities promotes integration in a stakeholder sense but also in a sectoral sense. Coastal communities have a right to act as a stakeholder in coastal management as they have direct contact and interest with their coastal environment (it is also important to acknowledge that there may be many individual stakeholders within a community). Furthermore, the values and interests communities extend past the economic sector, valuing public access, recreation, culture and historical factors as expressed in the results of the questionnaire. This integration of social and cultural factors broadens the scope of coastal management.

Section 2.4 acknowledges the importance of Kiwi beach cultures, in which the coastal environment and our interaction with it has shaped the creation of our national identity. This culture is an important feature that needs to be a part of coastal management within New Zealand. Section 2.4.2 alludes to the fact that coastal communities can act as the quantifiable primary building block of this national culture. At the community level, individual senses of place interact to create the first collective notion of beach culture. By catering for these community-based beach cultures around the country through the protection of local coastal values, the cumulative result will be the preservation and enhancement of the national beach culture.

The results of the case studies indicate that the desire for communities to participate is present. A high level of current participation was evident by the Kaikoura community group – Te Korowai. This level of participation was prompted by the perception of poor relationships with the local council in

particular, resulting in management that did not reflect the values the residents hold. If Te Korowai's perceived outcomes are provided for, conflict between the management approach and local coastal users should be lessened. Other less direct examples of community involvement identified in the results were actions such as: picking up rubbish and obeying and preaching fishing regulations. Another conclusion from the results was the fact that many people were more likely to react to specific issues that directly affect them as they arise, much like action (for and against) the proposed marina development on Waiheke Island. Through the questionnaires and observations it was clear that not all residents of coastal communities feel the need to be actively involved in coastal management. However, this fact does not quell the need to open pathways for communities that are proactive.

To conclude, communities need to be further integrated into coastal management in New Zealand as the decisions made about the management of the coastal environment affect them directly. Furthermore, given the intricacies of the coastal environment, management approaches should focus on the 'human aspect' and more specifically, the values, interests and desired outcomes of the coastal communities. Their participation enhances the integration of management attempts and proper utilisation of local knowledge could be an important tool in coastal management. The results of the case studies have shown that there is a desire from some communities to be heavily involved in the management of their coastal environment. But it must be mentioned that not all want such a task and are often only provoked into action when an issue directly affects them.

6.2.3 An example of current coastal management in New Zealand that promotes community involvement.

This section highlights the experiences of the Fiordland Marine Guardians and their journey which gained them statutory recognition to play a role in the effective management of the Fiordland Marine Area. The example provides some answers to the problems encountered by the communities in the case study areas. But more importantly, it shows that effective coastal management in New Zealand can be localised with higher levels of community involvement than prescribed by national coastal documents.

A group named the Fiordland Marine Guardians (FMG) formed in 1995 consisting of commercial and recreational fishers, tourist operators, environmentalists and members of Ngai Tahu. They developed the Fiordland Marine Conservation Strategy (2003) based on issues surrounding: fisheries, values of special significance, risks to natural values (human generated), and expressing kaitiakitanga (Guardians of Fiordlands's Fisheries and Marine Environment Inc, 2003). This prompted special legislation in the form of the Fiordland (Te Moana o Atawhenua) Marine Management Act (2005). This Act created the Fiordland Marine Area and formally recognised the Fiordland Marine Guardians as an advisory ensuring community input into the management regime (Fiordland Marine Guardians, 2006).

The Fiordland example represents several prominent factors that have been previously raised by the case studies and earlier discussions. The first is that the FMG is a representative group with group members that reflect the various stakeholder groups present in the Fiordland area. This was critical to ensure a holistic approach and ensure that the FMG intentions would align with the wider community attentions. In a *'Review of the effectiveness of the management of the Fiordland Marine Area'* it was found that nearly all community members knew at least one of the FMG members and that those members maintained regular contact with their respected interest group (Allen and Clarke Policy and Regulatory Specialists, 2010).

Secondly, the FMG realised that the legislation that promoted local community groups as leaders in the marine environment did not exist and pushed for the special legislation that is now in place (Guardians of Fiordlands's Fisheries and Marine Environnnment Inc, 2003). Their new advisory role under the Fiordland (Te Moana o Atawhenua) Marine Management Act (2005) gives them the statutory acknowledgement necessary to continue the work. Furthermore, it was their combined local knowledge that persuaded Government officials to include this advisory within the Act. The special legislation was also deemed appropriate due to Fiordland's "exceptional marine diversity, valuable marine resources, outstanding landscape and cultural heritage" (Allen and Clarke Policy and Regulatory Specialists, 2010: 8).

The experiences of FMG were the model adopted by Te Korowai in Kaikoura, who at this stage have completed a draft version of a Strategy (Te Korowai o Te Tai o Marokura, 2011). Once the strategy has been formalised and accounts for submissions, one of the next possible steps is to look at a similar special legislation providing a statutory Act for the Kaikoura marine area based on their strategy. This will also provide Te Korowai with statutory recognition of their leadership. However, Te Korowai will have to provide evidence to show that they are representative of the community if they are to receive a leadership role, and provide evidence to show that the Kaikoura marine area is a landscape of exceptional diversity and quality.

The example of the FMG experience does show that community involvement is possible and that government agencies are willing to provide managerial status to community groups. But the group must represent the community as a whole and it seems that current interest is for coastal areas of exceptional importance. To replicate similar processes still requires considerable investment both financially and in terms of time and this is before such initiatives are considered by the government. This restricts this approach to highly proactive community groups in outstanding coastal environments. Allowance in existing coastal legislation for further community involvement is needed to include communities that value their coastal environment but lack the resources or the nationally significant coastal environment to achieve the current process mentioned.

6.2.4 Ways in which coastal management could be improved in New Zealand to cater for community-based management.

More broadly, and in fields beyond coastal management the increasing popularity and demand for localism is challenging state intervention, prompting a shift in governance toward outward-looking community strategies “that create positive affinities between places and social groups negotiating global processes” (Featherstone *et al.*, 2012: 179). As Hon. Nick Smith, who at the time was the Minister for the Environment stated, the current government now “favours a collaborative approach to dealing with the complex environmental problems facing New Zealand” (Hon. Nick Smith, 2011). Despite this, this research has identified that the NZCPS (2010) (which is the overarching document for coastal management) does not explicitly mention the need to involve coastal communities in the management of their coastal environments. This section firstly explores theoretical ways in which management in New Zealand with respect to the coastal environment could realistically proceed to promote the growing demand of localism in the form of community involvement. Secondly, a description of some proposed changes to the NZCPS (2010) provides a pathway for community involvement to occur successfully.

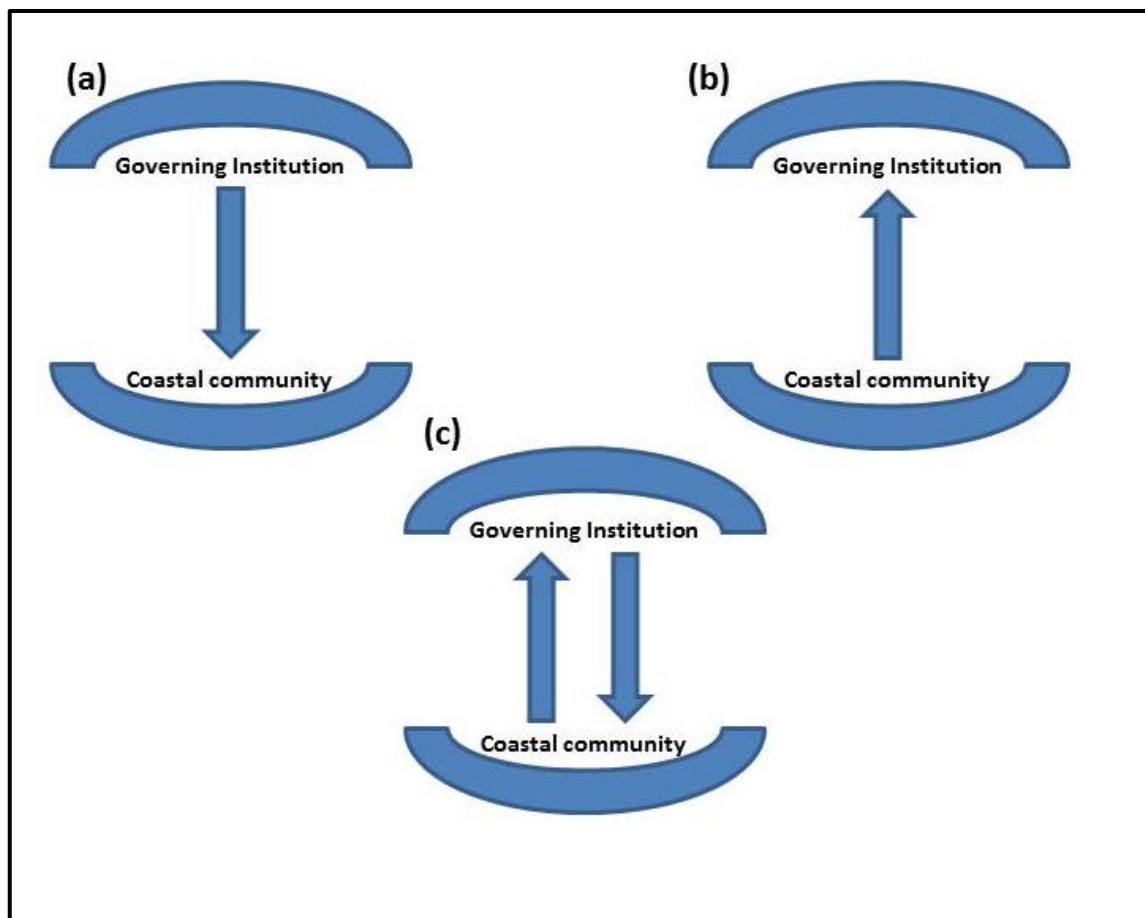


Figure 19 Schematic of current and possible 'models of governance': (a) current 'top-down' approach, (b) possible 'bottom-up' approach, (c) 'collaborative' approach with each level influencing the other (Source: Author)

Figure 19 shows three models of governance: (a) being the current ‘top-down’ approach where the overarching NZCPS (2010) delivers objectives and policies under which regional and district/city councils must adhere to within their plans. The current opportunities for coastal communities to be involved in coastal management are restricted to consultation and submissions on documents and non-statutory processes (except for ‘special legislation’ cases such as the Fiordland example). The basis of this thesis has been to critique this approach.

Figure 19(b) shows a purely community-based ‘bottom-up’ style of coastal management. A move to this approach would be completely radical compared to the current approach. The severity of a change such as this would be difficult to comprehend and is largely unrealistic. It would be impractical to designate coastal management solely to coastal communities because the results of this thesis indicated that not all communities have the desire or the capacity to fully engage in coastal management. Furthermore, even when desire is not an issue; proactive communities’ still need facilitation and professional advice from external sources to help develop robust initiatives.

Lastly, in figure 19(c) shows a collaborative style of management where ‘top-down’ and ‘bottom-up’ practice co-exist and influence the form of each other. National scale objectives are important, especially when the coastal environment plays such an important role in creating a national identity. Similarly to accurately account for the diversity in both use and the physical nature of the coastal environment within New Zealand, management needs to be tailored to local conditions. Integration is a key notion with respect to this style of management as it is vital to have fluid communication between the nested scales of governance (Figure 20). This is the most realistic approach for promoting further community involvement in coastal management as the current hierarchical structure of governance can persist. The changes can be in the form of amendments to: acknowledge community involvement in all levels of statutory documents and dissolve communication barriers to allow for a continued feedback loop between local communities and the national government through the relevant councils ensuring the positive effects of locally-based management culminates in desired national outcomes.

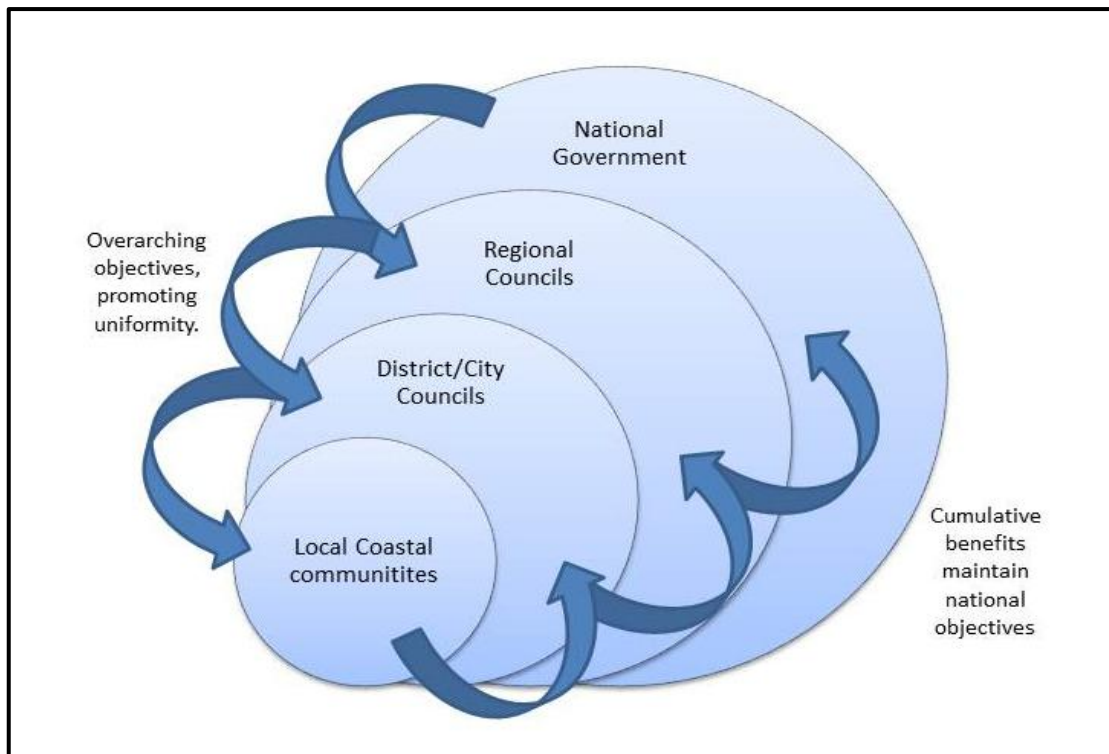


Figure 20 Idealised 'collaborative form' of management showing the benefits of dualistic and fluid communication (Source: Author)

To develop the preferred collaborative style of coastal management mentioned above that promotes community involvement, there are some simple steps that would change the current 'top-down' situation into a more 'collaborative style' that fully acknowledges the value of community involvement.

The first change that is needed is an amendment to the NZCPS (2010) to mention the need for community involvement and to define their possible roles. The analysis into the role of communities within the NZCPS (section 2.5.3) showed the only specific mention of community involvement occurred in the NZCPS draft (1990), stated below:

7.2 COMMUNITY AWARENESS AND PARTICIPATION

The community comprises people who have a personal interest in what happens on the coast. They have to live with the consequences of use and development. It is, therefore, important that the community understands proposals and their potential effects on the coastal environment. Local knowledge may be very important for sound decision-making

7.2.1 Plans and decision shall promote understanding, respect and care of the natural character of the coastal environment.

7.2.2 Plans and decisions shall provide for full and early participation by the community.

This draft seeks many of the ideals this thesis seeks. Importantly the draft: acknowledged that communities live with the consequences of use and development, understood that local knowledge is an important tool, and provided for ‘full’ and ‘early’ participation. This draft was prepared by the Labour Government’s Minister of Conservation, Philip Woollaston. With the accession of the National Government in 1990, the RMA (1991) and the subsequent NZCPS (1994) was less prescriptive and ‘desocialised’, focussing more on the management of material resources and less on people’s needs and aspirations (Le Heron and Pawson, 1996: 252).

The NZCPS (2010) needs an objective very similar to 7.2 of the 1990 draft. Below is a hypothetical ‘Objective 8’ proposed to amend the NZCPS (2010) to further promote community involvement.

Proposed ‘Objective 8’ to amend the NZCPS (2010) to further promote community involvement in coastal management.

The community comprises people who have a personal interest in what happens on the coast. They have to live with the consequences of use and development. It is, therefore, important to attain values, issues and desired outcomes communities associate with their specific coastal environment and to include these into robust initiatives. Local knowledge may be very important for sound decision-making.

8.1 Councils must provide the means for full and early participation by the community

8.2 The retention of a community’s values and desired outcomes provides for their social, economic, cultural wellbeing and for their health and safety.

8.3 Defining a community’s coastal environment is critical for sound decision-making

In addition to this objective, the specific mention of ‘community’ is also needed within Policy four of the NZCPS (2010) titled ‘Integration’ to aid the collaborate process illustrated in figure 20. Omission of the phrase ‘people and communities’ is needed from the existing objective six to nullify the implication of ‘subdivision, use, and development’ being the primary way of providing for a community’s: social, economic, and cultural wellbeing.

These changes maintain the current management structures but they do acknowledge a community’s worth in developing ways to improve their local coastal environment for their benefit. So long as sustainability is the central theme, this should reduce conflict between the community and current decision-makers and promote efficient coastal management.

A scenario of the suggested collaborative method would see the NZCPS and subsequent regional policies and plans continue. However, regional councils would have to allow for proactive communities to be involved with developing locally-specific strategies, which would act as a place-

specific chapter within the regional plans. Involvement could include: defining their coastal environment, identifying values and current concerns, a report on existing resources within the coastal environment (including social, cultural and historical resources), and identifying their preferred outcome of subsequent management. The level of involvement is of course up to the community in question and there may be examples of communities that require no higher level of involvement. The key point here is that the pathway needs to be available for any community to approach their councils if they wish to be a part of the management of their coastal environment.

6.3 Reflections on the research process

This section revisits the initial research questions and answers them by summarising the key outputs of this thesis. A reflection on the lessons learned about the approaches used to gather insight into community involvement is intended to provide a resource for decision-makers who in the future wish to engage with the community to gain insight into their values, issues and desired outcomes for their local coastal environments.

6.3.1 Research questions revisited.

In chapter 1, three research questions were identified to steer the research, rooting the focus in both: objective six of the NZCPS (2010) and the utilisation of community coastal knowledge. This section answers those original research questions described in chapter 1.

Research Questions

- 1) How is objective six of the NZCPS (2010) to be implemented?

Put simply, objective six is achieved through implementing the relevant policies of the NZCPS (2010). This is done by regional councils ‘giving effect’ to these policies through their own regional plans. Local authorities must adhere to their respective regional plans.

However, the initial intent of this question was to interrogate how objective six would ‘enable people and communities to provide for their social, economic, and cultural wellbeing and their health and safety’. This phrase infers the need for some level of community involvement so that decision-makers could better understand the factors that are attributed to social, economic, and cultural wellbeing. The research revealed there is no statutory requirement for any decision-makers to involve communities. The case studies provided evidence of non-statutory and in-direct approaches to community engagement with respect to coastal management. The Kaikoura coastal community group, Te Korowai, has a non-statutory relationship with Environment Canterbury with the goal of developing a locally based coastal strategy. But because it is non-statutory, it is uncertain that a definitive outcome that achieves Te Korowai’s goals will occur. The Waiheke Island Local Board engaged with their community to develop a Local Board Plan; a document that outlines the Local

Boards governing intentions. However, although the coastal environment is a feature within the plan, it was not the focus or the reason for the community engagement.

2) How is place specific community coastal knowledge expressed or known?

Place specific community coastal knowledge is difficult to express within the current statutory processes. Community input via statutory process is limited to submissions. Submissions can occur during the development stages of documents such as the NZCPS (2010) and regional level plans, but because these documents encompass areas wider than specific local coastal environments it is extremely difficult to successfully integrate those locally specific submissions.

Submissions can also occur on specific developments that require resource consent. This method is 'issues-based' and is dealt with on a case-by-case basis. Due to time and financial restraints it is often a struggle for communities to partake in such processes on an equal footing with other stakeholders.

The use of non-statutory methods to express a community's values, issues or knowledge in their own strategies can provide a wealth of information about local coastal environments and the human factors within them. But recognition or adoption of these efforts into statutory practice is uncertain and based on a case-by-case basis as the Fiordland example showed, that the group had to be representative of the greater community and the coastal environment had to be of significant national value. This uncertainty would likely hinder efforts of community groups wishing to undertake this style of approach.

3) How can place specific coastal knowledge be embedded into the implementation of objective six?

This question was also constructed with the notion of how objective six was to 'enable communities'. The literature research and the results from the case study research combined to give the impression that objective six is unable to provide for the level of community involvement needed to identify local values, issues and perceived outcomes. This is because it does not specifically refer to 'community involvement' or 'place specific coastal knowledge'. For this reason, the outcome of this thesis was to suggest the need to include a new or reworded objective within the NZCPS (2010) to explicitly mention the need for community involvement. Furthermore, this identified that much of the international literature shows a growing desire to include communities in coastal management as wider applications of localism are becoming popular. The suggested amendments are focussed at aligning the NZCPS (2010) with international practice by including community involvement, rather than implying the current form of the NZCPS (2010) is ineffective as there has not been enough time to see the implementation of the document.

The phrasing of objective six presumes people and communities thrive in a social, economic, and cultural sense through ‘subdivision, use, and development’, however, the community feedback from the case studies show that subdivision and development can be detrimental to those factors and certainly does not act as the sole solution to provide for those factors.

6.3.2 Reflections on the research process

In the attempt to gather community consensus within the case study areas of Kaikoura and Waiheke Island, it was evident that obtaining a large sample number would be a challenge. The low feedback participation is in itself a result, in which the lessons outlined here can improve the future methods applied by decision-makers for community engagement in coastal management. This section re-emphasises why the methodology was as such and accounts for the differences experienced.

On reflection, there may be a range of reasons why the focus group methodology employed at the Rakaia Huts for my honours project did not work so well at Kaikoura and Waiheke Island. The reasons include: the existence of prior networks e.g. Te Korowai, through which people can mobilise their interests and concerns, the lack of actual issues in coastal management in both places at the time of the research, and the possibility of a degree of engagement fatigue. These issues in no way however undermine the potential of community-based input into coastal management which engages local interest more directly than the current form of ‘top-down’ consultation.

The results of this thesis indicate several factors for decision-makers to consider if they are to effectively engage with local communities about their coastal environment. Firstly, there will be varying levels of desire to engage within and between communities, so it is imperative to acknowledge whether or not the feedback received is representative of the entire community or reflects a certain proactivity of individual stakeholders within the community. Furthermore, some communities will perceive the need to be engaged while others may not and this should dictate the level of impetus placed on community engagement, whilst acknowledging this interest (or lack of) may change over time so attempts to engage must be repeated. Secondly, a wide variety of methods is needed to ensure a greater representation. Preferred methods of engagement with one community or stakeholder group within a community may not be effective for another.

To conclude, community engagement even if statutorily acknowledged can involve considerable effort to ensure the correct level of representation and distinguish the appropriate level of leadership communities prefer. The results show that difference occurs not only between coastal communities but within them. Effort also needs to adapt over time to cater for changing perceptions.

7.0 References

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